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A SHORT HISTORY
OF
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

BY
J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN, M.A.
PROFESSOR OF THE THEORY, HISTORY, AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATION
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS

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INTRODUCTION.

1. Tongue, Speech, Language.—We speak of the “English tongue” or of the “French language”; and we say of two nations that they “do not understand each other’s speech.” The existence of these three words—**speech, tongue, language**—proves to us that a language is something **spoken**,—that it is a number of **sounds**; and that the writing or printing of it upon paper is a quite secondary matter. Language, rightly considered, then, is an organised set of sounds. These sounds convey a meaning from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the hearer, and thus serve to connect man with man.

2. Written Language.—It took many hundreds of years—perhaps thousands—before human beings were able to invent a mode of writing upon paper—that is, of representing **sounds** by **signs**. These signs are called **letters**; and the whole set of them goes by the name of the **Alphabet**—from the two first letters of the Greek alphabet, which are called *alpha, beta*. There are languages that have never been put upon paper at all, such as many of the African languages, many in the South Sea Islands, and other parts of the globe. But in all cases, every language that we know anything about—English, Latin, French, German—existed for hundreds of years before any one thought of writing it down on paper.

3. A Language Grows.—A language is an **organism** or **organic existence**. Now every organism lives; and, if it lives, it grows; and, if it grows, it also dies. Our language grows; it is growing still; and it has been growing for many

hundreds of years. As it grows it loses something, and it gains something else ; it alters its appearance ; changes take place in this part of it and in that part,—until at length its appearance in age is something almost entirely different from what it was in its early youth. If we had the photograph of a man of forty, and the photograph of the same person when he was a child of one, we should find, on comparing them, that it was almost impossible to point to the smallest trace of likeness in the features of the two photographs. And yet the two pictures represent the same person. And so it is with the English language. The oldest English, which is usually called Anglo-Saxon, is as different from our modern English as if they were two distinct languages ; and yet they are not two languages, but really and fundamentally one and the same. Modern English differs from the oldest English as a giant oak does from a small oak sapling, or a broad stalwart man of forty does from a feeble infant of a few months old.

4. The English Language.—The English language is the speech spoken by the Anglo-Saxon race in England, in most parts of Scotland, in the larger part of Ireland, in the United States, in Canada, in Australia and New Zealand, in South Africa, and in many other parts of the world. In the middle of the **fifth** century it was spoken by a few thousand men who had lately landed in England from the Continent : it is now spoken by more than one hundred millions of people. In the course of the next sixty years, it will probably be the speech of two hundred millions.

5. English on the Continent.—In the middle of the fifth century it was spoken in the north-west corner of Europe—between the mouths of the Rhine, the Weser, and the Elbe ; and in Schleswig there is a small district which is called **Angeln** to this day. But it was not then called **English** ; it was more probably called **Teutish**, or **Teutsch**, or **Deutsch**—all words connected with a generic word which covers many families and languages—**Teutonic**. It was a rough guttural speech of one or two thousand words ; and it was brought over to this country by the **Jutes**, **Angles**, and **Saxons** in the year 449. These

men left their home on the Continent to find here farms to till and houses to live in ; and they drove the inhabitants of the island—the **Britons**—ever farther and farther west, until they at length left them in peace in the more mountainous parts of the island—in the southern and western corners, in Cornwall and in Wales.

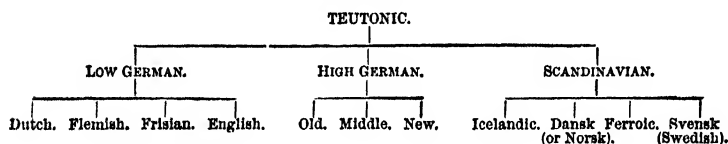
6. The British Language.—What language did the Teutonic conquerors, who wrested the lands from the poor Britons, find spoken in this island when they first set foot on it? Not a Teutonic speech at all. They found a language not one word of which they could understand. The island itself was then called **Britain**; and the tongue spoken in it belonged to the Keltic group of languages. Languages belonging to the Keltic group are still spoken in Wales, in Brittany (in France), in the Highlands of Scotland, in the west of Ireland, and in the Isle of Man. A few words—very few—from the speech of the Britons, have come into our own English language ; and what these are we shall see by-and-by.

7. The Family to which English belongs.—Our English tongue belongs to the **Aryan** or **Indo-European Family** of languages. That is to say, the main part or substance of it can be traced back to the race which inhabited the high table-lands that lie to the back of the western end of the great range of the Himalaya, or “Abode of Snow.” This Aryan race grew and increased, and spread to the south and west ; and from it have sprung languages which are now spoken in India, in Persia, in Greece and Italy, in France and Germany, in Scandinavia, and in Russia. From this Aryan family we are sprung ; out of the oldest Aryan speech our own language has grown.

8. The Group to which English belongs.—The Indo-European family of languages consists of several groups. One of these is called the **Teutonic Group**, because it is spoken by the **Teuts** (or the **Teutonic race**), who are found in Germany, in England and Scotland, in Holland, in parts of Belgium, in Denmark, in Norway and Sweden, in Iceland, and the Faroe Islands. The Teutonic group consists of three branches—**High German**, **Low German**, and **Scandinavian**. **High**

German is the name given to the kind of German spoken in Upper Germany—that is, in the table-land which lies south of the river Main, and which rises gradually till it runs into the Alps. **New High German** is the German of books—the literary language—the German that is taught and learned in schools. **Low German** is the name given to the German dialects spoken in the lowlands—in the German part of the Great Plain of Europe, and round the mouths of those German rivers that flow into the Baltic and the North Sea. **Scandinavian** is the name given to the languages spoken in Denmark and in the great Scandinavian Peninsula. Of these three languages, Danish and Norwegian are practically the same—their literary or book-language is one ; while Swedish is very different. Icelandic is the oldest and purest form of Scandinavian. The following is a table of the

GROUP OF TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.



It will be observed, on looking at the above table, that High German is subdivided according to time, but that the other groups are subdivided according to space.

9. English a Low-German Speech.—Our English tongue is the **lowest of all Low-German dialects**. Low German is the German spoken in the lowlands of Germany. As we descend the rivers, we come to the lowest level of all—the level of the sea. Our English speech, once a mere dialect, came down to that, crossed the German Ocean, and settled in Britain, to which it gave in time the name of Angla-land or England. The Low German spoken in the Netherlands is called **Dutch**; the Low German spoken in Friesland—a prosperous province of Holland—is called **Frisian**; and the Low German spoken in Great Britain is called **English**. These three languages are extremely like one another; but the Continental language that is likest

the English is the Dutch or Hollandish dialect called *Frisian*. We even possess a couplet, every word of which is both English and Frisian. It runs thus—

Good butter and good cheese
Is good English and good Fries.

10. Dutch and Welsh—a Contrast.—When the Teuton conquerors came to this country, they called the Britons foreigners, just as the Greeks called all other peoples besides themselves *barbarians*. By this they did not at first mean that they were uncivilised, but only that they were *not* Greeks. Now, the Teutonic or Saxon or English name for foreigners was **Wealhas**, a word afterwards contracted into **Welsh**. To this day the modern Teuts or Teutons (or *Germans*, as *we* call them) call all Frenchmen and Italians *Welshmen*; and, when a German peasant crosses the border into France, he says: “I am going into Welshland.”

11. The Spread of English over Britain.—The Jutes, who came from Juteland or Jylland—now called Jutland—settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight. The Saxons settled in the south and western parts of England, and gave their names to those kingdoms—now counties—whose names came to end in **sex**. There was the kingdom of the East Saxons, or **Essex**; the kingdom of the West Saxons, or **Wessex**; the kingdom of the Middle Saxons, or **Middlesex**; and the kingdom of the South Saxons, or **Sussex**. The Angles settled chiefly on the east coast. The kingdom of **East Anglia** was divided into the regions of the **North Folk** and the **South Folk**, words which are still perpetuated in the names *Norfolk* and *Suffolk*. These three sets of Teutons all spoke different dialects of the same Teutonic speech; and these dialects, with their differences, peculiarities, and odd habits, took root in English soil, and lived an independent life, apart from each other, uninfluenced by each other, for several hundreds of years. But, in the slow course of time, they joined together to make up our beautiful English language—a language which, however, still bears in itself the traces of dialectic forms, and is in no respect of one kind or of one fibre all through.

CHAPTER I.

THE PERIODS OF ENGLISH.

1. Dead and Living Languages.—A language is said to be **dead** when it is no longer spoken. Such a language we know only in books. Thus, **Latin** is a dead language, because no nation anywhere now speaks it. A dead language can undergo no change; it remains, and must remain, as we find it written in books. But a living language is always changing, just like a tree or the human body. The human body has its periods or stages. There is the period of infancy, the period of boyhood, the period of manhood, and the period of old age. In the same way, a language has its periods.

2. No Sudden Changes—a Caution.—We divide the English language into periods, and then mark, with some approach to accuracy, certain distinct changes in the habits of our language, in the inflexions of its words, in the kind of words it preferred, or in the way it liked to put its words together. But we must be carefully on our guard against fancying that, at any given time or in any given year, the English people threw aside one set of habits as regards language, and adopted another set. It is not so, nor can it be so. The changes in language are as gentle, gradual, and imperceptible as the changes in the growth of a tree or in the skin of the human body. We renew our skin slowly and gradually; but we are never conscious of the process, nor can we say at any given time that we have got a completely new skin.

3. The Periods of English.—Bearing this caution in mind, we can go on to look at the chief periods in our English language. These are five in number ; and they are as follows :—

I. Ancient English or Anglo-Saxon,	449-1100
II. Early English,	1100-1250
III. Middle English,	1250-1485
IV. Tudor English,	1485-1603
V. Modern English,	1603-1900

These periods merge very slowly, or are shaded off, so to speak, into each other in the most gradual way. If we take the English of 1250 and compare it with that of 900, we shall find a great difference ; but if we compare it with the English of 1100 the difference is not so marked. The difference between the English of the nineteenth and the English of the fourteenth century is very great, but the difference between the English of the fourteenth and that of the thirteenth century is very small.

4. Ancient English or Anglo-Saxon, 450-1100.—This form of English differed from modern English in having a much larger number of inflexions. The noun had five cases, and there were several declensions, just as in Latin ; adjectives were declined, and had three genders ; some pronouns had a dual as well as a plural number ; and the verb had a much larger number of inflexions than it has now. The vocabulary of the language contained very few foreign elements. The poetry of the language employed head-rhyme or alliteration, and not end-rhyme, as we do now. The works of the poet **Caedmon** and the great prose-writer **King Alfred** belong to this Anglo-Saxon period.

5. Early English, 1100-1250.—The coming of the Normans in 1066 made many changes in the land, many changes in the Church and in the State, and it also introduced many changes into the language. The inflexions of our speech began to drop off, because they were used less and less ; and though we never adopted new *inflexions* from French or from any other language, new French *words* began to creep in. In some parts of the country English had ceased to be written in books ; the language existed as a spoken language only ; and hence accuracy in the use of words and the inflexions of words could not be

ensured. Two notable books—written, not printed, for there was no printing in this island till the year 1474—belong to this period. These are the **Ormulum**, by Orm or Ormin, and the **Brut**, by a monk called **Layamon** or **Lawman**. The latter tells the story of Brutus, who was believed to have been the son of Æneas of Troy; to have escaped after the downfall of that city; to have sailed through the Mediterranean, ever farther and farther to the west; to have landed in Britain, settled here, and given the country its name.

6. Middle English, 1250-1485.—Most of the inflexions of nouns and adjectives have in this period—between the middle of the thirteenth and the end of the fifteenth century—completely disappeared. The inflexions of verbs are also greatly reduced in number. The **strong**¹ mode of inflexion has ceased to be employed for verbs that are new-comers, and the **weak** mode has been adopted in its place. During the earlier part of this period, even country-people tried to speak French, and in this and other modes many French words found their way into English. A writer of the thirteenth century, John de Trevisa, says that country-people “fondeth [that is, try] with great bysynes for to speke Freynsch for to be more y-told of.” The country-people did not succeed very well, as the ordinary proverb shows: “Jack would be a gentleman if he could speak French.” Boys at school were expected to turn their Latin into French, and in the courts of law French only was allowed to be spoken. But in 1362 Edward III. gave his assent to an Act of Parliament allowing English to be used instead of Norman-French. “The yer of oure Lord,” says John de Trevisa, “a thousand thre hondred foure score and fyve of the secunde Kyng Richard after the conquest, in al the gramer scoles of Engelond children leveth Freynsch, and construeth and turneth an Englysch.” To the first half of this period belong a **Metrical Chronicle**, attributed to **Robert of Gloucester**; **Langtoft’s Metrical Chronicle**, translated by **Robert de Brunne**; the **Agenbite of Inwit**, by Dan Michel of Northgate in Kent; and a few others. But to the second

¹ See p. 43 of ‘A New Grammar of the English Language.’

half belong the rich and varied productions of **Geoffrey Chaucer**, our first great poet and always one of our greatest writers; the alliterative poems of **William Langley** or **Langlande**; the more learned poems of **John Gower**; and the translation of the **Bible** and theological works of the reformer **John Wyclif**.

7. Tudor English, 1485-1603.—Before the end of the sixteenth century almost all our inflexions had disappeared. The great dramatist Ben Jonson (1574-1637) laments the loss of the plural ending *en* for verbs, because *wenten* and *hopen* were much more musical and more useful in verse than *went* or *hope*; but its recovery was already past praying for. This period is remarkable for the introduction of an enormous number of Latin words, and this was due to the new interest taken in the literature of the Romans—an interest produced by what is called the **Revival of Letters**. But the most striking, as it is also the most important fact relating to this period, is the appearance of a group of dramatic writers, the greatest the world has ever seen. Chief among these was **William Shakespeare**. Of pure poetry perhaps the greatest writer was **Edmund Spenser**. The greatest prose-writer was **Richard Hooker**, and the pithiest **Francis Bacon**.

8. Modern English, 1603-1900.—The grammar of the language was fixed before this period, most of the accidence having entirely vanished. The vocabulary of the language, however, has gone on increasing, and is still increasing; for the English language, like the English people, is always ready to offer hospitality to all peaceful foreigners—words or human beings—that will land and settle within her coasts. And the tendency at the present time is not only to give a hearty welcome to newcomers from other lands, but to call back old words and old phrases that had been allowed to drop out of existence. Tennyson has been one of the chief agents in this happy restoration.

CHAPTER II.

THE HISTORY OF THE VOCABULARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

1. **The English Nation.**—The English people have for many centuries been the greatest travellers in the world. It was an Englishman—Francis Drake—who first went round the globe; and the English have colonised more foreign lands in every part of the world than any other people that ever existed. The English in this way have been influenced by the world without. But they have also been subjected to manifold influences from within—they have been exposed to greater political changes, and profounder though quieter political revolutions, than any other nation. In 1066 they were conquered by the Norman-French; and for several centuries they had French kings. Seeing and talking with many different peoples, they learned to adopt foreign words with ease, and to give them a home among the native-born words of the language. Trade is always a kindly and useful influence; and the trade of Great Britain has for many centuries been larger than that of any other nation. It has spread into every part of the world; it gives and receives from all tribes and nations, from every speech and tongue.

2. **The English Element in English.**—When the English came to this island in the fifth century, the number of words in the language they spoke was probably not over two thousand. Now, however, we possess a vocabulary of perhaps more than one hundred thousand words. And so eager and willing

have we been to welcome foreign words, that it may be said with truth that: **The majority of words in the English Tongue are not English.** In fact, if we take the Latin language by itself, there are in our language more **Latin** words than **English**. But the grammar is distinctly English, and not Latin at all.

3. The Spoken Language and the Written Language—a Caution.—We must not forget what has been said about a language,—that it is not a printed thing—not a set of black marks upon paper, but that it is in truest truth a **tongue** or a **speech**. Hence we must be careful to distinguish between the **spoken** language and the **written** or **printed** language; between the language of the **ear** and the language of the **eye**; between the language of the **mouth** and the language of the **dictionary**; between the **moving** vocabulary of the market and the street, and the **fixed** vocabulary that has been catalogued and imprisoned in our dictionaries. If we can only keep this in view, we shall find that, though there are more Latin words in our vocabulary than English, the English words we possess are **used** in speaking a hundred times, or even a thousand times, oftener than the Latin words. It is the **genuine** English words that have life and movement; it is they that fly about in houses, in streets, and in markets; it is they that express with greatest force our truest and most usual sentiments—our inmost thoughts and our deepest feelings. Latin words are found often enough in books; but, when an English man or woman is deeply moved, he speaks pure English and nothing else. Words are the coin of human intercourse; and it is the native coin of pure English with the native stamp that is in daily circulation.

4. A Diagram of English.—If we were to try to represent to the eye the proportions of the different elements in our vocabulary, as it is found in the dictionary, the diagram would take something like the following form:—

DIAGRAM OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

ENGLISH WORDS.	
LATIN WORDS (including Norman-French, which are also Latin).	
GREEK WORDS.	Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, Hebrew, Arabic, Hindustani, Persian, Malay, American, etc. etc.

5. The Foreign Elements in our English Vocabulary.—

The different peoples and the different circumstances with which we have come in contact, have had many results—one among others, that of presenting us with contributions to our vocabulary. We found Kelts here; and hence we have a number of Keltic words in our vocabulary. The Romans held this island for several hundred years; and when they had to go in the year 410, they left behind them six Latin words, which we have inherited. In the seventh century, Augustine and his missionary monks from Rome brought over to us a larger number of Latin words; and the Church which they founded introduced ever more and more words from Rome. The Danes began to come over to this island in the eighth century; we had for some time a Danish dynasty seated on the throne of England: and hence we possess many Danish words. The Norman-French invasion in the eleventh century brought us many hundreds of Latin words; for French is in reality a branch of the Latin tongue. The Revival of Learning in the sixteenth century gave us several thousands of Latin words. And wherever our sailors and merchants have gone, they have brought back with them foreign words as well as foreign things—Arabic words from Arabia and Africa, Hindustani words from India, Persian words from Persia, Chinese words from China, and even Malay words from the peninsula of Malacca. Let us look a little more closely at these foreign elements.

6. The Keltic Element in English.—This element is of

three kinds: (i) Those words which we received direct from the ancient Britons whom we found in the island; (ii) those which the Norman-French brought with them from Gaul; (iii) those which have lately come into the language from the Highlands of Scotland, or from Ireland, or from the writings of Sir Walter Scott.

7. **The First Keltic Element.**—This first contribution contains the following words: *Breeches, clout, crock, cradle, darn, dainty, mop, pillow, barrow* (a funeral mound), *glen, havoc, kiln, mattock, pool*. It is worthy of note that the first eight in the list are the names of domestic—some even of kitchen—things and utensils. It may, perhaps, be permitted us to conjecture that in many cases the Saxon invader married a British wife, who spoke her own language, taught her children to speak their mother tongue, and whose words took firm root in the kitchen of the new English household. The names of most rivers, mountains, lakes, and hills are, of course, Keltic; for these names would not be likely to be changed by the English new-comers. There are two names for rivers which are found—in one form or another—in every part of Great Britain. These are the names **Avon** and **Ex**. The word **Avon** means simply *water*. We can conceive the children on a farm near a river speaking of it simply as “the water”; and hence we find fourteen Avons in this island. **Ex** also means *water*; and there are perhaps more than twenty streams in Great Britain with this name. The word appears as **Ex** in **Exeter** (the older and fuller form being *Exanceaster*—the camp on the Exe); as **Ax** in **Axminster**; as **Ox** in **Oxford**; as **Ux** in **Uxbridge**; and as **Ouse** in Yorkshire and other eastern counties. In Wales and Scotland, the hidden **k** changes its place and comes at the end. Thus in Wales we find **U**sk****; and in Scotland, **E**sk****. There are at least eight Esks in the kingdom of Scotland alone. The commonest Keltic name for a mountain is **Pen** or **Ben** (in Wales it is *Pen*; in Scotland the flatter form *Ben* is used). We find this word in England also under the form of **Pennine**; and, in Italy, as **Apennine**.

8. **The Second Keltic Element.**—The Normans came from

Scandinavia early in the tenth century, and wrested the valley of the Seine out of the hands of Charles the Simple, the then king of the French. The language spoken by the people of France was a broken-down form of spoken Latin, which is now called French; but in this language they had retained many Gaulish words out of the old Gaulish language. Such are the words: *Bag, bargain, barter; barrel, basin, basket, bucket; bonnet, button, ribbon; car, cart; dagger, gown; mitten, motley; rogue; varlet, vassal, wicket.* The above words were brought over to Britain by the Normans; and they gradually took an acknowledged place among the words of our own language, and have held that place ever since.

9. The Third Keltic Element.—This consists of comparatively few words—such as *clan; claymore* (a sword); *philabeg* (a kind of kilt), *kilt* itself, *brogue* (a kind of shoe), *plaid*; *pibroch* (bagpipe war-music), *slogan* (a war-cry); and *whisky*. Ireland has given us *shamrock, gag, log, clog, and brogue*—in the sense of a mode of speech. *To slana & chotung.*

10. The Scandinavian Element in English.—Towards the end of the eighth century—in the year 787—the Teutons of the North, called Northmen, Normans, or Norsemen—but more commonly known as Danes—made their appearance on the eastern coast of Great Britain, and attacked the peaceful towns and quiet settlements of the English. These attacks became so frequent, and their occurrence was so much dreaded, that a prayer was inserted against them in a Litany of the time—“From the incursions of the Northmen, good Lord, deliver us!” In spite of the resistance of the English, the Danes had, before the end of the ninth century, succeeded in obtaining a permanent footing in England; and, in the eleventh century, a Danish dynasty sat upon the English throne from the year 1016 to 1042. From the time of King Alfred, the Danes of the Danelagh were a settled part of the population of England; and hence we find, especially on the east coast, a large number of Danish names still in use.

11. Character of the Scandinavian Element.—The Northmen, as we have said, were Teutons; and they spoke a dialect

of the great Teutonic (or German) language. The sounds of the Danish dialect—or language, as it must now be called—are harder than those of the German. We find a **k** instead of a **ch**; a **p** preferred to an **f**. The same is the case in Scotland, where the hard form **kirk** is preferred to the softer **church**. Where the Germans say **Dorf**—our English word **Thorpe**, a village—the Danes say **Drup**.

12. Scandinavian Words (i).—The words contributed to our language by the Scandinavians are of two kinds: (i) Names of places; and (ii) ordinary words. (i) The most striking instance of a Danish place-name is the noun **by**, a town. Mr Isaac Taylor¹ tells us that there are in the east of England more than six hundred names of towns ending in **by**. Almost all of these are found in the Danelagh, within the limits of the great highway made by the Romans to the north-west, and well-known as **Watling Street**. We find, for example, **Whitby**, or the town on the *white* cliffs; **Grimsby**, or the town of Grim, a great sea-rover, who obtained for his countrymen the right that all ships from the Baltic should come into the port of Grimsby free of duty; **Tenby**, that is Daneby; **by-law**, a law for a special town; and a vast number of others. The following Danish words also exist in our times—either as separate and individual words, or in composition—**beck**, a stream; **fell**, a hill or table-land; **firth** or **fiord**, an arm of the sea—the same as the Danish fiord; **force**, a waterfall; **garth**, a yard or enclosure; **holm**, an island in a river; **kirk**, a church; **oe**, an island; **thorpe**, a village; **thwaite**, a forest clearing; and **vik** or **wick**, a station for ships, or a creek.

13. Scandinavian Words (ii).—The most useful and the most frequently employed word that we have received from the Danes is the word **are**. The pure English word for this is **beeth** or **sindon**. The Danes gave us also the habit of using **to** before an infinitive. Their word for **was** is **at**; and **at** still survives and is in use in Lincolnshire. We find also the following Danish words in our language: **blunt**, bole (of a tree), **bound** (on a journey—properly **boun**), **busk** (to dress), **cake**,

¹ Words and Places, p. 153.

call, crop (to cut), **curl, cut, dairy, daze, din, droop, fellow, flit, for, froward, hustings, ill, irk, kid, kindle, loft, odd, plough, root, scold, sky, tarn** (a small mountain lake), **weak, and ugly**. It is in Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, Lincoln, Norfolk, and even in the western counties of Cumberland and Lancashire, that we find the largest admixture of Scandinavian words.

14. Influence of the Scandinavian Element.—The introduction of the Danes and the Danish language into England had the result, in the east, of unsettling the inflexions of our language, and thus of preparing the way for their complete disappearance. The declensions of nouns became unsettled; nouns that used to make their plural in **a** or in **u** took the more striking plural suffix **as** that belonged to a quite different declension. The same things happened to adjectives, verbs, and other parts of language. The causes of this are not far to seek. Spoken language can never be so accurate as written language; the mass of the English and Danes never cared or could care much for grammar; and both parties to a conversation would of course hold firmly to the **root** of the word, which was intelligible to both of them, and let the inflexions slide, or take care of themselves. The more the English and Danes mixed with each other, the oftener they met at church, at games, and in the market-place, the more rapidly would this process of stripping go on,—the smaller care would both peoples take of the grammatical inflexions which they had brought with them into this country.

15. The Latin Element in English.—So far as the number of words—the vocabulary—of the language is concerned, the Latin contribution is by far the most important element in our language. Latin was the language of the Romans; and the Romans at one time were masters of the whole known world. No wonder, then, that they influenced so many peoples, and that their language found its way—east and west, and south and north—into almost all the countries of Europe. There are, as we have seen, more Latin than English words in our own language; and it is therefore necessary to make ourselves acquainted with the

character and the uses of the Latin element—an element so important—in English.¹ Not only have the Romans made contributions of large **numbers** of words to the English language, but they have added to it a quite new **quality**, and given to its genius new **powers** of expression. So true is this, that we may say—without any sense of unfairness, or any feeling of exaggeration—that, until the Latin element was thoroughly mixed, united with, and transfused into the original English, the writings of Shakespeare were impossible, the poetry of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries could not have come into existence. This is true of Shakespeare; and it is still more true of Milton. His most powerful poetical thoughts are written in lines, the most telling words in which are almost always Latin. This may be illustrated by the following lines from “*Lycidas*” :—

“It was that *fatal* and *perfidious* bark,
Built in the *eclipse*, and rigged with curses dark,
That sunk so low that *sacred* head of thine !”

16. The Latin Contributions and their Dates.—The first contribution of Latin words was made by the Romans—not, however, to the English, but to the Britons. The Romans held this island from A.D. 43 to A.D. 410. They left behind them—when they were obliged to go—a small contribution of six words—six only, but all of them important. The second contribution—to a large extent ecclesiastical—was made by Augustine and his missionary monks from Rome, and their visit took place in the year 596. The third contribution was made through the medium of the Norman-French, who seized and subdued this island in the year 1066 and following years. The fourth contribution came to us by the aid of the Revival of Learning—rather a process than an event, the dates of which are vague, but which may be said to have taken place in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Latin left for us by the Romans is called **Latin of the First Period**; that brought over by the missionaries from Rome, **Latin of the**

¹ In the last half of this sentence, all the essential words—*necessary, acquainted, character, uses, element, important*, are Latin (except *character*, which is Greek).

Second Period; that given us by the Norman-French, **Latin of the Third Period**; and that which came to us from the Revival of Learning, **Latin of the Fourth Period**. The first consists of a few names handed down to us through the Britons; the second, of a number of words—mostly relating to ecclesiastical affairs—brought into the spoken language by the monks; the third, of a large vocabulary, that came to us by **mouth and ear**; and the fourth, of a very large treasure of words, which we received by means of **books and the eye**. Let us now look more closely and carefully at them, each in its turn.

17. Latin of the First Period.—(i) The Romans held Britain for nearly four hundred years; and they succeeded in teaching the wealthier classes among the Southern Britons to **speak Latin**. They also built towns in the island, made splendid roads, formed camps at important points, framed good laws, and administered the affairs of the island with considerable justice and uprightness. But, never having come directly into contact with the Angles or Saxons themselves, they could not in any way influence their language by oral communication—by speaking to them. What they left behind them was only six words, most of which became merely the prefixes or the suffixes of the names of places. These six words were **Castra**, a camp; **Strata** (*via*), a paved road; **Colonia**, a settlement (generally of soldiers); **Fossa**, a trench; **Portus**, a harbour; and **Vallum**, a rampart.

18. Latin of the First Period (ii).—(a) The treatment of the Latin word **castra** in this island has been both singular and significant. It has existed in this country for nearly nineteen hundred years; and it has always taken the colouring of the locality into whose soil it struck root. In the north and east of England it is sounded hard, and takes the form of **caster**, as in **Lancaster**, **Doncaster**, **Tadcaster**, and others. In the midland counties, it takes the softer form of **cester**, as in **Leicester**, **Towcester**; and in the extreme west and south, it takes the still softer form of **chester**, as in **Chester**, **Manchester**, **Winchester**, and others. It is worthy of notice that there are in Scotland no words ending in **caster**. Though

the Romans had camps in Scotland, they do not seem to have been so important as to become the centres of towns. (b) The word **strata** has also taken different forms in different parts of England. While **castra** has always been a suffix, **strata** shows itself constantly as a prefix. When the Romans came to this island, the country was impassable by man. There were no roads worthy of the name,—what paths there were being merely foot-paths or bridle-tracks. One of the first things the Romans did was to drive a strongly built military road from **Richborough**, near Dover, to the river Dee, on which they formed a standing camp (**Castra stativa**) which to this day bears the name of **Chester**. This great road became the highway of all travellers from north to south,—was known as “The Street,” and was called by the Saxons **Watling Street**. But this word **street** also became a much-used prefix, and took the different forms of **strat**, **strad**, **stret**, and **streat**. All towns with such names are to be found on this or some other great Roman road. Thus we have **Stratford-on-Avon**, **Stratton**, **Stradbroke**, **Stretton**, **Stretford** (near Manchester), and **Streatham** (near London).—Over the other words we need not dwell so long. **Colonia** we find in **Colne**, **Lincoln**, and others; **fossa** in **Fossway**, **Fosbrooke**, and **Fosbridge**; **portus**, in **Portsmouth** and **Bridport**; and **vallum** in the words **wall**, **bailey**, and **bailiff**. The Normans called the two courts in front of their castles the inner and outer baileys; and the officer in charge of them was called the bailiff.

19. **Latin Element of the Second Period** (i).—The story of Pope Gregory and the Roman mission to England is widely known. Gregory, when a young man, was crossing the Roman forum one morning, and, when passing the side where the slave-mart was held, observed, as he walked, some beautiful boys, with fair hair, blue eyes, and clear bright complexion. He asked a bystander of what nation the boys were. The answer was, that they were Angles. “No, not Angles,” he replied; “they are angels.” On learning further that they were heathens, he registered a silent vow that he would, if Providence gave him an opportunity, deliver them from the

darkness of heathendom, and bring them and their relatives into the light and liberty of the Gospel. Time passed by; and in the long course of time Gregory became Pope. In his unlooked-for greatness, he did not forget his vow. In the year 596 he sent over to Kent a missionary, called Augustine, along with forty monks. They were well received by the King of Kent, allowed to settle in Canterbury, and to build a small cathedral there.

20. Latin Element of the Second Period (ii).—This mission, the churches that grew out of it, the Christian customs that in time took root in the country, and the trade that followed in its track, brought into the language a number of Latin words, most of them the names of church offices, services, and observances. Thus we find, in our oldest English, the words, *postol* from *apostolus*, a person sent; *biscop*, from *episcopus*, an overseer; *calc*, from *calix*, a cup; *clerc*, from *clericus*, an ordained member of the church; *munec*, from *monachus*, a solitary person or monk; *preost*, from *presbyter*, an elder; *aemesse*, from *eleēmosinē*, alms; *predician*, from *predicare*, to preach; *regol*, from *regula*, a rule. (*Apostle, bishop, clerk, monk, priest*, and *alms* come to us really from Greek words—but through the Latin tongue.)

21. Latin Element of the Second Period (iii).—The introduction of the Roman form of Christianity brought with it increased communication with Rome and with the Continent generally; widened the experience of Englishmen; gave a stimulus to commerce; and introduced into this island new things and products, and along with the things and products new names. To this period belongs the introduction of the words: *Butter, cheese; cedar, fig, pear, peach; lettuce, lily; pepper, pease; camel, lion, elephant; oyster, trout; pound, ounce; candle, table; marble; mint.*

22. Latin of the Third Period (i).—The Latin element of the Third Period is in reality the French that was brought over to this island by the Normans in 1066, and is generally called **Norman-French**. It differed from the French of Paris both in spelling and in pronunciation. For example, Norman-

French wrote **people** for **peuple**; **léal** for **loyal**; **réal** for **royal**; **réalm** for **royaume**; and so on. But both of these dialects (and every dialect of French) are simply forms of Latin—not of the Latin written and printed in books, but of the Latin spoken in the camp, the fields, the streets, the village, and the cottage. The Romans conquered Gaul, where a Keltic tongue was spoken; and the Gauls gradually adopted Latin as their mother tongue, and—with the exception of the Brétons of Brittany—left off their Keltic speech almost entirely. In adopting the Latin tongue, they had—as in similar cases—taken firm hold of the root of the word, but changed the pronunciation of it, and had, at the same time, compressed very much or entirely dropped many of the Latin inflexions. The French people, an intermixture of Gauls and other tribes (some of them, like the Franks, German), ceased, in fact, to speak their own language, and learned the Latin tongue. The Norsemen, led by Duke Rolf or Rollo or Rou, marched south in large numbers; and, in the year 912, wrested from King Charles the Simple the fair valley of the Seine, settled in it, and gave to it the name of Normandy. These Norsemen, now Normans, were Teutons, and spoke a Teutonic dialect; but, when they settled in France, they learned in course of time to speak French. The kind of French they spoke is called Norman French, and it was this kind of French that they brought over with them in 1066. But Norman-French had made its appearance in England before the famous year of '66; for Edward the Confessor, who succeeded to the English throne in 1042, had been educated at the Norman Court; and he not only spoke the language himself, but insisted on its being spoken by the nobles who lived with him in his Court.

23. Latin of the Third Period (ii). Chief Dates.—The Normans, having utterly beaten down the resistance of the English, seized the land and all the political power of this country, and filled all kinds of offices—both spiritual and temporal—with their Norman brethren. Norman-French became the language of the Court and the nobility, the language of Parliament and the law courts, of the universities and the schools, of the Church

and of literature. The English people held fast to their own tongue; but they picked up many French words in the markets and other places "where men most do congregate." But French, being the language of the upper and ruling classes, was here and there learned by the English or Saxon country-people who had the ambition to be in the fashion, and were eager "to speke Frensch, for to be more y-told of,"—to be more highly considered than their neighbours. It took about three hundred years for French words and phrases to soak thoroughly into English; and it was not until England was saturated with French words and French rhythms that the great poet Chaucer appeared to produce poetic narratives that were read with delight both by Norman baron and by Saxon yeoman. In the course of these three hundred years this intermixture of French with English had been slowly and silently going on. Let us look at a few of the chief land-marks in the long process. In **1042** Edward the Confessor introduces Norman-French into his Court. In **1066** Duke William introduces Norman-French into the whole country, and even into parts of Scotland. The oldest English, or Anglo-Saxon, ceases to be written, anywhere in the island, in public documents, in the year **1154**. In **1204** we lost Normandy, a loss that had the effect of bringing the English and the Normans closer together. Robert of Gloucester writes his chronicle in **1272**, and uses a large number of French words. But, as early as the reign of Henry the Third, in the year **1258**, the reformed and reforming Government of the day issued a proclamation in English, as well as in French and Latin. In **1303**, Robert of Brunn introduces a large number of French words. The French wars in Edward the Third's reign brought about a still closer union of the Norman and the Saxon elements of the nation. But, about the middle of the fourteenth century a reaction set in, and it seemed as if the genius of the English language refused to take in any more French words. The English silent stubbornness seemed to have prevailed, and Englishmen had made up their minds to be English in speech, as they were English to the backbone in everything else. Norman-French had, in fact, become provincial, and was spoken

only here and there. Before the great Plague—commonly spoken of as “The Black Death”—of 1349, both high and low seemed to be alike bent on learning French, but the reaction may be said to date from this year. The culminating point of this reaction may perhaps be seen in an Act of Parliament passed in 1362 by Edward III., by which both French and Latin had to give place to English in our courts of law. The poems of Chaucer are the literary result—“the bright consummate flower” of the union of two great powers—the brilliance of the French language on the one hand and the homely truth and steadfastness of English on the other. Chaucer was born in 1340, and died in 1400; so that we may say that he and his poems—though not the causes—are the signs and symbols of the great influence that French obtained and held over our mother tongue. But although we accepted so many *words* from our Norman-French visitors and immigrants, we accepted from them no *habit* of speech whatever. We accepted from them no phrase or idiom: the build and nature of the English language remained the same—unaffected by foreign manners or by foreign habits. It is true that Chaucer has the ridiculous phrase, “I n’am but dead” (for “I am quite dead”¹)—which is a literal translation of the well-known French idiom, “Je ne suis que.” But, though our tongue has always been and is impervious to foreign idiom, it is probably owing to the great influx of French words which took place chiefly in the thirteenth century that many people have acquired a habit of using a long French or Latin word when an English word would do quite as well—or, indeed, a great deal better. Thus some people are found to call a *good house*, a *desirable mansion*; and, instead of the quiet old English proverb, “Buy once, buy twice,” we have the roundabout Latinisms, “A single commission will ensure a repetition of orders.” An American writer, speaking of the foreign ambassadors who had been attacked by Japanese soldiers in Yeddo, says that “they concluded to occupy a location more salubrious.” This is only a foreign language, instead of the simple and homely English: “They made up their minds to settle in a healthier spot.”

¹ Or, as an Irishman would say, “I am kilt entirely.”

24. Latin of the Third Period (iii). Norman Words (a).—The Norman-French words were of several different kinds. There were words connected with war, with feudalism, and with the chase. There were new law terms, and words connected with the State, and the new institutions introduced by the Normans. There were new words brought in by the Norman churchmen. New titles unknown to the English were also introduced. A better kind of cooking, a higher and less homely style of living, was brought into this country by the Normans; and, along with these, new and unheard-of words.

25. Norman Words (b).—The following are some of the Norman-French terms connected with war: **Arms, armour; assault, battle; captain, chivalry; joust, lance; standard, trumpet; mail, vizor.** The English word for **armour** was **harness**; but the Normans degraded that word into the armour of a horse. **Battle** comes from the Fr. *battre*, to beat: the corresponding English word is **fight**. **Captain** comes from the Latin *caput*, a head. **Mail** comes from the Latin *macula*, the mesh of a net; and the first coats of mail were made of rings or a kind of metal network. **Vizor** comes from the Fr. *viser*, to look. It was the barred part of the helmet which a man could see through.

26. Norman Words (c).—Feudalism may be described as the holding of land on condition of giving or providing service in war. Thus a knight held land of his baron, under promise to serve him so many days; a baron of his king, on condition that he brought so many men into the field for such and such a time at the call of his Overlord. William the Conqueror made the feudal system universal in every part of England, and compelled every English baron to swear homage to himself personally. Words relating to feudalism are, among others: **Homage, fealty; esquire, vassal; herald, scutcheon**, and others. **Homage** is the declaration of obedience for life of one man to another—that the inferior is the *man* (Fr. *homme*; L. *homo*) of the superior. **Fealty** is the Norman-French form of the word *fidelity*. An **esquire** is a **scutiger** (L.), or *shield-bearer*; for he carried the shield of the knight, when

they were travelling and no fighting was going on. A **vassal** was a "little young man,"—in Low-Latin **vassallus**, a diminutive of *vassus*, from the Keltic word *gwds*, a man. (The form *vassaletus* is also found, which gives us our *varlet* and *valet*.) **Scutcheon** comes from the Lat. *scutum*, a shield. Then scutcheon or escutcheon came to mean *coat-of-arms*—or the marks and signs on his shield by which the name and family of a man were known, when he himself was covered from head to foot in iron mail.

27. Norman Words (d).—The terms connected with the chase are: **Brace**, couple; **chase**, course; **covert**, copse, forest; **leveret**, mews; **quarry**, venison. A few remarks about some of these may be interesting. **Brace** comes from the Old French *brace*, an arm (Mod. French *bras*); from the Latin *brachium*. The root-idea seems to be that which encloses or holds up. Thus *bracing* air is that which *strings* up the nerves and muscles; and a *brace* of birds was two birds tied together with a string.—The word **forest** contains in itself a good deal of unwritten Norman history. It comes from the Latin adverb *foras*, out of doors. Hence, in Italy, a stranger or foreigner is still called a *forestiere*. A forest in Norman-French was not necessarily a breadth of land covered with trees; it was simply land *out of* the jurisdiction of the common law. Hence, when William the Conqueror created the New Forest, he merely took the land *out of* the rule and charge of the common law, and put it under his own regal power and personal care. In land of this kind—much of which was kept for hunting in—trees were afterwards planted, partly to shelter large game, and partly to employ ground otherwise useless in growing timber.—**Mews** is a very odd word. It comes from the Latin verb *mutare*, to change. When the falcons employed in hunting were changing their feathers, or *moulting* (the word *moult* is the same as *mews* in a different dress), the French shut them in a cage, which they called *mue*—from *mutare*. Then the stables for horses were put in the same place; and hence a row of stables has come to be called a **mews**.—**Quarry** is quite as strange. The word *quarry*, which means a mine of stones,

comes from the Latin *quadrāre*, to make square. But the hunting term *quarry* is of a quite different origin. That comes from the Latin *cor* (the heart), which the Old French altered into *quer*. When a wild beast was run down and killed, the heart and entrails were thrown to the dogs as their share of the hunt. Hence Milton says of the eagle, "He scents his quarry from afar."—The word **venison** comes to us, through French, from the Lat. *venāri*, to hunt; and hence it means *hunted flesh*. The same word gives us *venery*—the term that was used in the fourteenth century, by Chaucer among others, for hunting.

28. Norman Words (e).—The Normans introduced into England their own system of law, their own law officers; and hence, into the English language, came Norman-French law terms. The following are a few: **Assize, attorney; chancellor, court; judge, justice; plaintiff, sue; summons, trespass.** A few remarks about some of these may be useful. The **chancellor** (*cancellarius*) was the legal authority who sat behind lattice-work, which was called in Latin *cancelli*. This word means, primarily, *little crabs*; and it is a diminutive from *cancer*, a crab. It was so called because the lattice-work looked like crabs' claws crossed. Our word *cancel* comes from the same root: it means to make cross lines through anything we wish deleted.—**Court** comes from the Latin *cors* or *cohors*, a sheep-pen. It afterwards came to mean an enclosure, and also a body of Roman soldiers.—The proper English word for a *judge* is **deemster** or **demster** (which appears as the proper name *Dempster*); and this is still the name for a judge in the Isle of Man. The French word comes from two Latin words, *dico*, I utter, and *jus*, right. The word *jus* is seen in the other French term which we have received from the Normans—**justice**.—**Sue** comes from the Old Fr. *suir*, which appears in Modern Fr. as *suivre*. It is derived from the Lat. word *sequor*, I follow (which gives our *sequel*); and we have compounds of it in *ensue*, *issue*, and *pursue*.—The *tres* in **trespass** is a French form of the Latin *trans*, beyond or across. *Trespass*, therefore, means to cross the bounds of right.

29. Norman Words (f).—Some of the church terms intro-

duced by the Norman-French are: **Altar, Bible; baptism, ceremony; friar; tonsure; penance, relic.**—The Normans gave us the words **title** and **dignity** themselves, and also the following titles: **Duke, marquis; count, viscount; peer; mayor,** and others. A **duke** is a *leader*; from the Latin *dux* (= *duc-s*). A **marquis** is a lord who has to ride the *marches* or borders between one county, or between one country, and another. A **marquis** was also called a **Lord-Marcher**. The word **count** never took root in this island, because its place was already occupied by the Danish name *earl*; but we preserve it in the names **countess** and **viscount**—the latter of which means a person *in the place of* (L. *vice*) a count. **Peer** comes from the Latin *par*, an equal. The House of Peers is the House of Lords—that is, of those who are, at least when in the House, *equal* in rank and *equal* in power of voting. It is a fundamental doctrine in English law that every man “is to be tried by his *peers*.”—It is worthy of note that, in general, the French names for different kinds of food designated the **cooked** meats; while the names for the **living** animals that furnish them are **English**. Thus we have *beef* and *ox*; *mutton* and *sheep*; *veal* and *calf*; *pork* and *pig*. There is a remarkable passage in Sir Walter Scott’s ‘*Ivanhoe*,’ which illustrates this fact with great force and picturesqueness:—

“ ‘Gurth, I advise thee to call off Fangs, and leave the herd to their destiny, which, whether they meet with bands of travelling soldiers, or of outlaws, or of wandering pilgrims, can be little else than to be converted into Normans before morning, to thy no small ease and comfort.’ ”

“ ‘The swine turned Normans to my comfort!’ quoth Gurth; ‘expound that to me, Wamba, for my brain is too dull, and my mind too vexed, to read riddles.’ ”

“ ‘Why, how call you those grunting brutes running about on their four legs?’ demanded Wamba.

“ ‘Swine, fool, swine,’ said the herd; ‘every fool knows that.’ ”

“ ‘And swine is good Saxon,’ said the jester; ‘but how call

you the sow when she is flayed, and drawn, and quartered, and hung up by the heels, like a traitor ? ’

“ ‘Pork,’ answered the swine-herd.

“ ‘I am very glad every fool knows that too,’ said Wamba ; ‘and pork, I think, is good Norman-French : and so when the brute lives, and is in the charge of a Saxon slave, she goes by her Saxon name ; but becomes a Norman, and is called pork, when she is carried to the castle-hall to feast among the nobles ; what dost thou think of this, friend Gurth, ha ? ’

“ ‘It is but too true doctrine, friend Wamba, however it got into thy fool’s pate.’

“ ‘Nay, I can tell you more,’ said Wamba, in the same tone ; ‘there is old Alderman Ox continues to hold his Saxon epithet, while he is under the charge of serfs and bondsmen such as thou, but becomes Beef, a fiery French gallant, when he arrives before the worshipful jaws that are destined to consume him. Myhneer Calf, too, becomes Monsieur de Veau in the like manner ; he is Saxon when he requires tendance, and takes a Norman name when he becomes matter of enjoyment.’ ”

30. General Character of the Norman-French Contributions.

—The Norman-French contributions to our language gave us a number of **general names** or **class-names** ; while the names for **individual things** are, in general, of purely English origin. The words **animal** and **beast**, for example, are French (or Latin) ; but the words **fox**, **hound**, **whale**, **snake**, **wasp**, and **fly** are purely English.—The words **family**, **relation**, **parent**, **ancestor**, are French ; but the names **father**, **mother**, **son**, **daughter**, **gossip**, are English.—The words **title** and **dignity** are French ; but the words **king** and **queen**, **lord** and **lady**, **knight** and **sheriff**, are English.—Perhaps the most remarkable instance of this is to be found in the abstract terms employed for the offices and functions of State. Of these, the English language possesses only one—the word **kingdom**. Norman-French, on the other hand, has given us the words **realm**, **court**, **state**, **constitution**, **people**, **treaty**, **audience**, **navy**, **army**, and others—amounting in all to nearly forty. When, however, we come to terms denoting labour and work—such as agri-

culture and seafaring, we find the proportions entirely reversed. The English language, in such cases, contributes almost everything; the French nearly nothing. In agriculture, while **plough, rake, harrow, flail**, and many others are English words, not a single term for an agricultural process or implement has been given us by the warlike Norman-French.—While the words **ship** and **boat**; **hull** and **fleet**; **oar** and **sail**, are all English, the Normans have presented us with only the single word **prow**. It is as if all the Norman conqueror had to do was to take his stand at the prow, gazing upon the land he was going to seize, while the Low-German sailors worked for him at oar and sail.—Again, while the names of the various parts of the body—**eye, nose, cheek, tongue, hand, foot**, and more than eighty others—are all English, we have received only about ten similar words from the French—such as **spirit** and **corpse**; **perspiration**; **face** and **stature**. Speaking broadly, we may say that all words that express **general notions**, or generalisations, are French or Latin; while words that express **specific actions** or concrete existences are pure English. Mr Spalding observes—“We use a foreign term naturalised when we speak of ‘colour’ universally; but we fall back on our home stores if we have to tell what the colour is, calling it ‘red’ or ‘yellow,’ ‘white’ or ‘black,’ ‘green’ or ‘brown.’ We are Romans when we speak in a *general* way of ‘moving’; but we are Teutons if we ‘leap’ or ‘spring,’ if we ‘slip,’ ‘slide,’ or ‘fall,’ if we ‘walk,’ ‘run,’ ‘swim,’ or ‘ride,’ if we ‘creep’ or ‘crawl’ or ‘fly.’”

31. Gains to English from Norman-French.—The gains from the Norman-French contribution are large, and are also of very great importance. Mr Lowell says, that the Norman element came in as quickening leaven to the rather heavy and lumpy Saxon dough. It stirred the whole mass, gave new life to the language, a much higher and wider scope to the thoughts, much greater power and copiousness to the expression of our thoughts, and a finer and brighter rhythm to our English sentences. “To Chaucer,” he says, in ‘My Study Windows,’ “French must have been almost as truly a mother tongue as English. In him we see the first result of the Norman yeast

upon the home-baked Saxon loaf. The flour had been honest, the paste well kneaded, but the inspiring leaven was wanting till the Norman brought it over. Chaucer works still in the solid material of his race, but with what airy lightness has he not infused it? Without ceasing to be English, he has escaped from being insular." Let us look at some of these gains a little more in detail.

32. Norman-French Synonyms.—We must not consider a **synonym** as a word that means exactly *the same thing* as the word of which it is a synonym; because then there would be neither room nor use for such a word in the language. A synonym is a word of the same meaning as another, but with a slightly different shade of meaning,—or it is used under different circumstances and in a different connection, or it puts the same idea under a new angle. **Begin** and **commence**, **will** and **testament**, are exact equivalents—are complete synonyms; but there are very few more of this kind in our language. The moment the genius of a language gets hold of two words of the same meaning, it sets them to do different kinds of work,—to express different parts or shades of that meaning. Thus **limb** and **member**, **luck** and **fortune**, have the same meaning; but we cannot speak of a *limb* of the Royal Society, or of the *luck* of the Rothschilds, who made their *fortune* by hard work and steady attention to business. We have, by the aid of the Norman-French contributions, **flower** as well as **bloom**; **branch** and **bough**; **purchase** and **buy**; **amiable** and **friendly**; **cordial** and **hearty**; **country** and **land**; **gentle** and **mild**; **desire** and **wish**; **labour** and **work**; **miserable** and **wretched**. These pairs of words enable poets and other writers to use the right word in the right place. And we, preferring our Saxon or good old English words to any French or Latin importations, prefer to speak of a **hearty welcome** instead of a **cordial reception**; of a **loving wife** instead of an **amiable consort**; of a **wretched man** instead of a **miserable individual**.

33. Bilingualism.—How did these Norman-French words find their way into the language? What was the road by which

they came? What was the process that enabled them to find a place in and to strike deep root into our English soil? Did the learned men—the monks and the clergy—make a selection of words, write them in their books, and teach them to the English people? Nothing of the sort. The process was a much ruder one—but at the same time one much more practical, more effectual, and more lasting in its results. The two peoples—the Normans and the English—found that they had to live together. They met at church, in the market-place, in the drilling field, at the archery butts, in the courtyards of castles; and, on the battle-fields of France, the Saxon bowman showed that he could fight as well, as bravely, and even to better purpose than his lord—the Norman baron. At all these places, under all these circumstances, the Norman and the Englishman were obliged to speak with each other. Now arose a striking phenomenon. Every man, as Professor Earle puts it, turned himself as it were into a walking phrase-book or dictionary. When a Norman had to use a French word, he tried to put the English word for it alongside of the French word; when an Englishman used an English word, he joined with it the French equivalent. Then the language soon began to swarm with “yokes of words”; our words went in couples; and the habit then begun has continued down even to the present day. And thus it is that we possess such couples as **will and testament; act and deed; use and wont; aid and abet**. Chaucer’s poems are full of these pairs. He joins together **hunting and venery** (though both words mean exactly the same thing); **nature and kind; cheere and face; pray and beseech; mirth and jollity**. Later on, the Prayer-Book, which was written in the years 1540 to 1559, keeps up the habit: and we find the pairs **acknowledge and confess; assemble and meet together; dissemble and cloak; humble and lowly**. To the more English part of the congregation the simple Saxon words would come home with kindly association; to others, the words *confess, assemble, dissemble*, and *humble* would speak with greater force and clearness.—Such is the phenomenon called by Professor Earle **bilingualism**. “It is, in fact,” he says, “a putting of colloquial for-

mulae to do the duty of a French-English and English-French vocabulary." Even Hooker, who wrote at the end of the sixteenth century, seems to have been obliged to use these pairs; and we find in his writings the couples "cecity and blindness," "nocive and hurtful," "sense and meaning."

34. Losses of English from the Incoming of Norman-French.

—(i) Before the coming of the Normans, the English language was in the habit of forming compounds with ease and effect. But, after the introduction of the Norman-French language, that power seems gradually to have disappeared; and ready-made French or Latin words usurped the place of the home-grown English compound. Thus **despair** pushed out **wanhope**; **suspicion** dethroned **wantrust**; **bidding-sale** was expelled by **auction**; **learning-knight** by **disciple**; **rime-craft** by the Greek word **arithmetic**; **gold-hoard** by **treasure**; **book-hoard** by **library**; **earth-tilth** by **agriculture**; **wonstead** by **residence**; and so with a large number of others.—Many English words, moreover, had their meanings depreciated and almost degraded; and the words themselves lost their ancient rank and dignity. Thus the Norman conquerors put their foot—literally and metaphorically—on the Saxon **chair**,¹ which thus became a **stool**, or a **footstool**. **Thatch**, which is a doublet of the word **deck**, was the name for any kind of roof; but the coming of the Norman-French lowered it to indicate a *roof of straw*. **Whine** was used for the weeping or crying of human beings; but it is now restricted to the cry of a dog. **Hide** was the generic term for the skin of any animal; it is now limited in modern English to the skin of a beast.—The most damaging result upon our language was that it entirely stopped the growth of English words. We could, for example, make out of the word **burn**—the derivatives **brunt**, **brand**, **brandy**, **brown**, **brimstone**, and others; but this power died out with the coming in of the Norman-French language. After that, instead of growing our own words, we

¹ *Chair* is the Norman-French form of the French *chaise*. The Germans still call a chair a *stuhl*; and among the English, *stool* was the universal name till the twelfth century.

adopted them ready-made.—Professor Craik compares the English and Latin languages to two banks; and says that, when the Normans came over, the account at the English bank was closed, and we drew only upon the Latin bank. But the case is worse than this. English lost its power of growth and expansion from the centre; from this time, it could only add to its bulk by borrowing and conveying from without—by the external accretion of foreign words.

35. Losses of English from the Incoming of Norman-French.

—(ii) The arrestment of growth in the purely English part of our language, owing to the irruption of Norman-French, and also to the ease with which we could take a ready-made word from Latin or from Greek, killed off an old power which we once possessed, and which was not without its own use and expressiveness. This was the power of making compound words. The Greeks in ancient times had, and the Germans in modern times have, this power in a high degree. Thus a Greek comic poet has a word of fourteen syllables, which may be thus translated—

“Meanly-rising-early-and-hurrying-to-the-tribunal-to-denounce-another-for-an-infraction-of-the-law-concerning-the-exportation-of-figs.”¹

And the Germans have a compound like “the-all-to-nothing-crushing philosopher.” The Germans also say *iron-path* for *rail-way*, *handshoe* for *glove*, and *finger-hat* for *thimble*. We also possessed this power at one time, and employed it both in proper and in common names. Thus we had and have the names *Brakespear*, *Shakestaff*, *Shakespear*, *Golightly*, *Dolittle*, *Stundfast*; and the common nouns *want-wit*, *find-fault*, *mumble-news* (for *tale-bearer*), *pinch-penny* (for *niser*), *slugabed*. In older times we had *three-foot-stool*, *three-man-beetle*²; *stone-cold*, *heaven-bright*, *honey-sweet*, *snail-slow*, *nut-brown*, *lily-livered* (for *cowardly*); *brand-fire-new*; *earth-wandering*, *wind-dried*, *thunder-blasted*, *death-doomed*, and many others. But such words as *forbears* or *fore-elders* have been pushed out by *ances-*

¹ In two words, a *fig-shower* or *sycophant*.

² A club for beating clothes, that could be handled only by three men.

tors; *forewit* by *caution* or *prudence*; and *inwit* by *conscience*. Mr Barnes, the Dorsetshire poet, would like to see these and similar compounds restored, and thinks that we might well return to the old clear well-springs of "English undefiled," and make our own compounds out of our own words. He even carries his desires into the region of English grammar, and, for *degrees of comparison*, proposes the phrase *itches of suchness*. Thus, instead of the Latin word *omnibus*, he would have *folk-wain*; for the Greek *botany*, he would substitute *wort-lore*; for *auction*, he would give us *bode-sale*; *globule* he would replace with *ballkin*; the Greek word *horizon* must give way to the pure English *sky-edge*; and, instead of *quadrangle*, he would have us all write and say *four-winkle*.

36. Losses of English from the Incoming of Norman-French.—(iii) When once a way was made for the entrance of French words into our English language, the immigrations were rapid and numerous. Hence there were many changes both in the grammar and in the vocabulary of English from the year 1100, the year in which we may suppose those Englishmen who were living at the date of the battle of Hastings had died out. These changes were more or less rapid, according to circumstances. But perhaps the most rapid and remarkable change took place in the lifetime of William Caxton, the great printer, who was born in 1410. In his preface to his translation of the 'Æneid' of Virgil, which he published in 1490, when he was eighty years of age, he says that he cannot understand old books that were written when he was a boy—that "the olde Englysshe is more lyke to dutche than englysshe," and that "our langage now vsed varyeth ferre from that whiche was vsed and spoken when I was borne. For we Englysshemen ben borne ynder the domynacyon of the mone [moon], which is neuer stedfaste, but euer wauerynge, wexynge one season, and waneth and dycreaseth another season." This as regards time.—But he has the same complaint to make as regards place. "Comyn englysshe that is spoken in one shyre varyeth from another." And he tells an odd story in illustration of this fact. He tells about certain merchants who were in a ship "in Tamyse" (on the

Thames), who were bound for Zealand, but were wind-stayed at the Foreland, and took it into their heads to go on shore there. One of the merchants, whose name was Sheffelde, a mercer, entered a house, "and axed for mete, and specyally he axyd after eggys." But the "goode-wyf" replied that she "coude speke no frenshe." The merchant, who was a steady Englishman, lost his temper, "for he also coude speke no frenshe, but wolde have hadde eggys; and she understode hym not." Fortunately, a friend happened to join him in the house, and he acted as interpreter. The friend said that "he wolde have eyren; then the goode wyf sayde that she understod hym wel." And then the simple-minded but much-perplexed Caxton goes on to say: "Loo! what sholde a man in thyse dayes now wryte, eggës or eyren?" Such were the difficulties that beset printers and writers in the close of the fifteenth century.

37. Latin of the Fourth Period.—(i) This contribution differs very essentially in character from the last. The Norman-French contribution was a gift from a people to a people—from living beings to living beings; this new contribution was rather a conveyance of words from books to books, and it never influenced—in any great degree—the **spoken language** of the English people. The ear and the mouth carried the Norman-French words into our language; the eye, the pen, and the printing-press were the instruments that brought in the Latin words of the Fourth Period. The Norman-French words that came in took and kept their place in the spoken language of the masses of the people; the Latin words that we received in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries kept their place in the written or printed language of books, of scholars, and of literary men. These new Latin words came in with the **Revival of Learning**, which is also called the **Renascence**.

The Turks attacked and took Constantinople in the year **1453**; and the great Greek and Latin scholars who lived in that city hurriedly packed up their priceless manuscripts and books, and fled to all parts of Italy, Germany, France, and even into England. The loss of the East became the gain of the West. These scholars became teachers; they taught the Greek

and Roman classics to eager and earnest learners; and thus a new impulse was given to the study of the great masterpieces of human thought and literary style. And so it came to pass in course of time that every one who wished to become an educated man studied the literature of Greece and Rome. Even women took to the study. Lady Jane Grey was a good Greek and Latin scholar; and so was Queen Elizabeth. From this time began an enormous importation of Latin words into our language. Being imported by the eye and the pen, they suffered little or no change; the spirit of the people did not influence them in the least—neither the organs of speech nor the ear affected either the pronunciation or the spelling of them. If we look down the columns of any English dictionary, we shall find these later Latin words in hundreds. *Opinionem* became **opinion**; *factionem*, **faction**; *orationem*, **oration**; *pungentem* passed over in the form of **pungent** (though we had *poignant* already from the French); *pauperem* came in as **pauper**; and *separatum* became **separate**.

38. Latin of the Fourth Period.—(ii) This went on to such an extent in the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century, that one writer says of those who spoke and wrote this Latinised English, "If some of their mothers were alive, they were not able to tell what they say." And Sir Thomas Browne (1605-1682) remarks: "If elegance (= the use of Latin words) still proceedeth, and English pens maintain that stream we have of late observed to flow from many, we shall, within a few years, be fain to learn Latin to understand English, and a work will prove of equal facility in either." Mr Alexander Gill, an eminent schoolmaster, and the then head-master of St Paul's School, where, among his other pupils, he taught John Milton, wrote a book in 1619 on the English language; and, among other remarks, he says: "O harsh lips! I now hear all around me such words as *common*, *vices*, *envy*, *malice*; even *virtue*, *study*, *justice*, *pity*, *mercy*, *compassion*, *profit*, *commodity*; *colour*, *grace*, *favour*, *acceptance*. But whither, I pray, in all the world, have you banished those words which our forefathers used for these new-fangled ones?

Are our words to be executed like our citizens?" And he calls this fashion of using Latin words "the new mange in our speaking and writing." But the fashion went on growing; and even uneducated people thought it a clever thing to use a Latin instead of a good English word. Samuel Rowlands, a writer in the seventeenth century, ridicules this affectation in a few lines of verse. He pretends that he was out walking on the highroad, and met a countryman who wanted to know what o'clock it was, and whether he was on the right way to the town or village he was making for. The writer saw at once that he was a simple bumpkin; and, when he heard that he had lost his way, he turned up his nose at the poor fellow, and ordered him to be off at once. Here are the lines:—

"As on the way I itinerated,
A rural person I obviated,
Interrogating time's transitation,
And of the passage demonstration.
My apprehension did ingenious scann
That he was merely a simplician;
So, when I saw he was extravagant,
Unto the obscure vulgar consonant,
I bade him vanish most promiscuously,
And not contaminate my company."

39. Latin of the Fourth Period.—(iii) What happened in the case of the Norman-French contribution, happened also in this. The language became saturated with these new Latin words, until it became satiated, then, as it were, disgusted, and would take no more. Hundreds of

"Long-tailed words in *osity* and *ation*"

crowded into the English language; but many of them were doomed to speedy expulsion. Thus words like *discerptibility*, *supervacaneousness*, *septentrionality*, *ludibundness* (love of sport), came in in crowds. The verb *intenerate* tried to turn out *soften*; and *deturpate* to take the place of *defile*. But good writers, like Bacon and Raleigh, took care to avoid the use of such terms, and to employ only those Latin words which gave them the power to indicate a new idea—a new meaning or a new shade

of meaning. And when we come to the eighteenth century, we find that a writer like Addison would have shuddered at the very mention of such “inkhorn terms.”

40. Eye-Latin and Ear-Latin.—(i) One slight influence produced by this spread of devotion to classical Latin—to the Latin of Cicero and Livy, of Horace and Virgil—was to alter the spelling of French words. We had already received—through the ear—the French words *assaute*, *aventure*, *defaut*, *dette*, *vitaille*, and others. But when our scholars became accustomed to the book-form of these words in Latin books, they gradually altered them—for the eye and ear—into *assault*, *adventure*, *default*, *debt*, and *victuals*. They went further. A large number of Latin words that already existed in the language in their Norman-French form (for we must not forget that French is Latin “with the ends bitten off”—changed by being spoken peculiarly and heard imperfectly) were reintroduced in their original Latin form. Thus we had *caitiff* from the Normans; but we reintroduced it in the shape of *captive*, which comes almost unaltered from the Latin *captivum*. *Feat* we had from the Normans; but the Latin *factum*, which provided the word, presented us with a second form of it in the word *fact*. Such words might be called **Ear-Latin** and **Eye-Latin**; **Mouth-Latin** and **Book-Latin**; **Spoken Latin** and **Written Latin**; or Latin at second-hand and Latin at first-hand.

41. Eye-Latin and Ear-Latin.—(ii) This coming in of the same word by two different doors—by the Eye and by the Ear—has given rise to the phenomenon of **Doublets**. The following is a list of **Latin Doublets**; and it will be noticed that Latin¹ stands for Latin at first-hand—from books; and Latin² for Latin at second-hand—through the Norman-French.

LATIN DOUBLETS OR DUPLICATES.

LATIN.	LATIN ¹ .	LATIN ² .
Antecessorem	Antecessor	Ancestor.
Benedictionem	Benediction	Benison.
Cadentia (Low Lat. noun)	Cadence	Chance.
Captivum	Captive	Caitiff.

Conceptionem	Conception	Conceit.
Consuetudinem	Consuetude	{ Custom. Costume
Cophinum	Coffin	Coffer.
Corpus (a body)	Corpse	Corps.
Debitum (something owed)	Debit	Debt.
Defectum (something wanting)	Defect	Defeat.
Dilatāre	Dilate	Delay.
Exemplum	Example	Sample.
Fabrica (a workshop)	Fabric	Forge.
Factionem	Faction	Fashion.
Factum	Fact	Feat.
Fidelitatem	Fidelity	Fealty.
Fragilem	Fragile	Frail.
Gentilis (belonging to a gens or family)	Gentile	Gentile.
Historia	History	Story.
Hospitale	Hospital	Hotel.
Lectionem	Lection	Lesson.
Legalem	Legal	Loyal.
Magister	Master	Mr.
Majorem (greater)	Major	Mayor.
Maledictionem	Malediction	Malison.
Moneta	Mint	Money.
Nutrimentum	Nutrient	Nourishment.
Orationem	Oration	Orison (a prayer).
Paganum (a dweller in a pagus or country district)	Pagan	Payne (a proper name).
Particulam (a little part)	Particle	Parcel.
Pauperem	Pauper	Poor.
Penitentiam	Penitence	Penance
Persecutum	Persecute	Pursue.
Potionem (a draught)	Potion	Poison.
Pungentem	Pungent	Poignant.
Quietum	Quiet	Coy.
Radius	Radius	Ray.
Regālem	Regal	Royal.
Respectum	Respect	Respite.
Securum	Secure	Sure.
Seniorem	Senior	Sir.
Separatum	Separate	Sever.
Species	Species	Spice.
Statum	State	Estate.
Tractum	Tract	Trait.
Traditionem	Tradition	Treason.
Zelosum	Zealous	Jealous.

42. Remarks on the above Table.—The word **benison**, a blessing, may be contrasted with its opposite, **malison**, a curse.—**Cadence** is the falling of sounds; **chance** the befalling of events.—A **caitiff** was at first a *captive*—then a person who made no proper defence, but *allowed* himself to be taken captive.—A **corps** is a *body* of troops.—The word **sample** is found, in older English, in the form of **ensample**.—A **feat** of arms is a deed or **fact** of arms, *par excellence*.—To understand how **fragile** became **frail**, we must pronounce the **g** hard, and notice how the hard guttural falls easily away—as in our own native words *flail* and *hail*, which formerly contained a hard **g**.—A **major** is a *greater* captain; a **mayor** is a *greater* magistrate.—A **magister** means a *bigger man*—as opposed to a **minister** (from *minus*), a *smaller man*.—**Moneta** was the name given to a stamped coin, because these coins were first struck in the temple of Juno Moneta, Juno the Adviser or the Warner. (From the same root—**mon**—come *monition*, *admonition*; *monitor*; *admonish*.)—Shakespeare uses the word **orison** freely for *prayer*, as in the address of Hamlet to Ophelia, where he says, “Nymph, in thy orisons, be all my sins remembered!”—**Poor** comes to us from an Old French word *poure*; the newer French is *pauvre*.—To understand the vanishing of the **g** sound in *poignant*, we must remember that the Romans sounded it always hard.—**Sever** we get through *separate*, because **p** and **v** are both labials, and therefore easily interchangeable.—**Treason**—with its **s** instead of **ti**—may be compared with **benison**, **malison**, **orison**, **poison**, and **reason**.

43. Conclusions from the above Table.—If we examine the table on page 39 with care, we shall come to several undeniable conclusions. (i) First, the words which come to us direct from Latin are found more in books than in everyday speech. (ii) Secondly, they are longer. The reason is that the words that have come through French have been worn down by the careless pronunciation of many generations—by that desire for ease in the pronouncing of words which characterises all languages, and have at last been compelled to take that form which was least difficult to pronounce. (iii) Thirdly, the two

sets of words have, in each case, either (*a*) very different meanings, or (*b*) different shades of meaning. There is no likeness of meaning in *cadence* and *chance*, except the common meaning of *fall* which belongs to the root from which they both spring. And the different shades of meaning between **history** and **story**, between **regal** and **royal**, between **persecute** and **pursue**, are also quite plainly marked, and are of the greatest use in composition.

44. Latin Triplets.—Still more remarkable is the fact that there are in our language words that have made three appearances—one through Latin, one through Norman-French, and one through ordinary French. These seem to live quietly side by side in the language; and no one asks by what claim they are here. They are useful: that is enough. These triplets are—**regal**, **royal**, and **real**; **legal**, **loyal**, and **leal**; **fidelity**, **faithfulness**,¹ and **fealty**. The adjective **real** we no longer possess in the sense of *royal*, but Chaucer uses it; and it still exists in the noun **real-m**. **Leal** is most used in Scotland, where it has a settled abode in the well-known phrase “the land o’ the leal.”

45. Greek Doublets.—The same double introduction, which we noticed in the case of Latin words, takes place in regard to Greek words. It seems to have been forgotten that our English forms of them had been already given us by St Augustine and the Church, and a newer form of each was reintroduced. The following are a few examples:—

GREEK.	OLDER FORM.	LATER FORM.
Adamanta ² (the untameable)	Diamond	Adamant.
Balsamon	Balm	Balsam.
Blaspēmēin (to speak ill of)	Blame	BlaspHEME.
Cheirourgon ² (a worker with the hand)	ChirurgEON	SurGEON.

¹ The word *faith* is a true French word with an English ending—the ending *th*. Hence it is a hybrid. The old French word was *fei*—from the Latin *fidem*; and the ending *th* was added to make it look more like *truth*, *wealth*, *health*, and other purely English words.

² The accusative or objective case is given in all these words.

Dactylon (a finger)	Date (the fruit)	Dactyl.
Phantasia	Fancy	Phantasy.
Phantasma (an appearance)	Phantom	Phantasm.
Presbuteron (an elder)	Priest	Presbyter.
Paralysis	Palsy	Paralysis.
Scandālon	Slander	Scandal.

It may be remarked of the word *fancy*, that, in Shakespeare's time, it meant *love* or *imagination*—

“Tell me, where is *fancy* bred,
Or in the heart, or in the head ?”

It is now restricted to mean a lighter and less serious kind of imagination. Thus we say that Milton's ‘Paradise Lost’ is a work of imagination; but that Moore's ‘Lalla Rookh’ is a product of the poet's fancy.

46. Characteristics of the Two Elements of English.—If we keep our attention fixed on the two chief elements in our language—the English element and the Latin element—the Teutonic and the Romance—we shall find some striking qualities manifest themselves. We have already said that whole sentences can be made containing only English words, while it is impossible to do this with Latin or other foreign words. Let us take two passages—one from a daily newspaper, and the other from Shakespeare :—

(i) “We find the *functions* of such an *official* defined in the *Act*. He is to be a *legally qualified medical practitioner* of skill and *experience*, to *inspect* and *report periodically* on the *sanitary condition* of town or *district*; to *ascertain the existence of diseases*, more especially *epidemics increasing the rates of mortality*, and to *point out the existence of any nuisances* or other *local causes*, which are likely to *originate and maintain such diseases*, and *injuriously affect* the health of the *inhabitants* of such town or *district*; to take *cognisance* of the *existence* of any *contagious disease*, and to *point out the most efficacious means* for the *ventilation* of *chapels, schools, registered lodging-houses*, and other *public buildings*.”

In this passage, all the words in italics are either Latin or Greek. But, if the purely English words were left out, the sentence would fall into ruins—would become a mere rubbish-heap of words. It is the small particles that give life and

motion to each sentence. They are the joints and hinges on which the whole sentence moves.—Let us now look at a passage from Shakespeare. It is from the speech of Macbeth, after he has made up his mind to murder Duncan :—

- (ii) “ Go bid thy *mistress*, when my drink is ready,
 She strike upon the bell. Get thee to bed !—
 Is this a dagger which I see before me,
 The handle toward my hand ? Come ! let me clutch thee !
 —I have thee not ; and yet I see thee still.”

In this passage there is only one Latin (or French) word—the word *mistress*. If Shakespeare had used the word *lady*, the passage would have been entirely English.—The passage from the newspaper deals with large **generalisations** ; that from Shakespeare with individual **acts** and **feelings**—with things that come **home** “ to the business and bosom ” of man as man. Every master of the English language understands well the art of mingling the two elements—so as to obtain a fine effect ; and none better than writers like Shakespeare, Milton, Gray, and Tennyson. Shakespeare makes Antony say of Cleopatra :—

“ Age cannot wither her ; nor *custom* stale
 Her infinite *variety*.”

Here the French (or Latin) words *custom* and *variety* form a vivid contrast to the English verb *stale*, throw up its meaning and colour, and give it greater prominence.—Milton makes Eve say :—

“ I thither went
 With *inexperienc'd* thought, and laid me down
 On the green bank, to look into the *clear*
 Smooth *lake*, that to me seem'd another sky.”

Here the words *inexperienced* and *clear* give variety to the sameness of the English words.—Gray, in the *Elegy*, has this verse :—

“ The breezy call of *incense*-breathing morn,
 The swallow twittering from the straw-built shed,
 The cock's shrill *clarion* or the *echoing* horn,
 No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.”

Here *incense*, *clarion*, and *echoing* give a vivid colouring to the plainer hues of the homely English phrases.—Tennyson, in the *Lotos-Eaters*, vi., writes :—

“ Dear is the *memory* of our wedded lives,
 And dear the last *embraces* of our wives
 And their warm tears : but all hath *suffer'd change* ;
 For *surely* now our household hearths are cold :
 Our sons *inherit* us : our looks are *strange* :
 And we should come like ghosts to *trouble joy*.”

Most powerful is the introduction of the French words *suffered change*, *inherit*, *strange*, and *trouble joy* ; for they give with painful force the contrast of the present state of desolation with the homely rest and happiness of the old abode, the love of the loving wives, the faithfulness of the stalwart sons.

47. English and other Doublets.—We have already seen how, by the presentation of the same word at two different doors—the door of Latin and the door of French—we are in possession of a considerable number of doublets. But this phenomenon is not limited to Latin and French—is not solely due to the contributions we receive from these languages. We find it also *within* English itself ; and causes of the most different description bring about the same results. For various reasons, the English language is very rich in doublets. It possesses nearly five hundred pairs of such words. The language is all the richer for having them, as it is thereby enabled to give fuller and clearer expression to the different shades and delicate varieties of meaning in the mind.

48. The sources of doublets are various. But five different causes seem chiefly to have operated in producing them. They are due to differences of **pronunciation** ; to differences in **spelling** ; to **contractions** for convenience in daily speech ; to differences in **dialects** ; and to the fact that many of them come from **different languages**. Let us look at a few examples of each. At bottom, however, all these differences will be found to resolve themselves into **differences of pronunciation**. They are either differences in the pronunciation of the same word by

different tribes, or by men in different counties, who speak different dialects; or by men of different nations.

49. Differences in Pronunciation.—From this source we have **parson** and **person** (the **parson** being the *person* or representative of the Church); **sop** and **soup**; **task** and **tax** (the **sk** has here become **ks**); **thread** and **thrid**; **ticket** and **etiquette**; **sauce** and **souse** (to steep in brine); **squall** and **squeal**.

50. Differences in Spelling.—To and too are the same word—one being used as a preposition, the other as an adverb; of and off, from and fro, are only different spellings, which represent different functions or uses of the same word; onion and union are the same word. An union¹ comes from the Latin *unus*, one, and it meant a large single pearl—a unique jewel; the word was then applied to the plant, the head of which is of a pearl-shape.

51. Contractions.—Contraction has been a pretty fruitful source of doublets in English. A long word has a syllable or two cut off; or two or three are compressed into one. Thus **example** has become **sample**; **alone** appears also as **lone**; **amend** has been shortened into **mend**; **defend** has been cut down into **fend** (as in fender); **manceuvre** has been contracted into **manure** (both meaning originally *to work with the hand*); **madam** becomes 'm in **yes 'm**²; and **presbyter** has been squeezed down into **priest**.³ Other examples of contraction are: **capital** and **cattle**; **chirurgion** (a worker with the hand) and **surgeon**; **cholera** and **choler** (from *chōlos*, the Greek word for *bile*); **disport** and **sport**; **estate** and **state**; **esquire** and **squire**; **Egyptian** and

¹ In *Hamlet* v. 2. 283, Shakespeare makes the King say—

“The King shall drink to Hamlet's better breath;
And in the cup an union shall he throw.”

² Professor Max Müller gives this as the most remarkable instance of cutting down. The Latin *mea domina* became in French *madame*; in English *ma'am*; and, in the language of servants, 'm.

³ Milton says, in one of his sonnets—

“New Presbyter is but old Priest writ large.”

From the etymological point of view, the truth is just the other way about. *Priest* is old *Presbyter* writ small.

gipsy; **emmet** and **ant**; **gammon** and **game**; **grandfather** and **gaffer**; **grandmother** and **gammer**; **iota** (the Greek letter *i*) and **jot**; **maximum** and **maxim**; **mobile** and **mob**; **mosquito** and **musket**; **papa** and **pope**; **periwig** and **wig**; **poesy** and **posy**; **procurator** and **proctor**; **shallop** and **sloop**; **unity** and **unit**. It is quite evident that the above pairs of words, although in reality one, have very different meanings and uses.

52. Difference of English Dialects.—Another source of doublets is to be found in the dialects of the English language. Almost every county in England has its own dialect; but three main dialects stand out with great prominence in our older literature, and these are the **Northern**, the **Midland**, and the **Southern**. The grammar of these dialects¹ was different; their pronunciation of words was different—and this has given rise to a splitting of one word into two. In the North, we find a hard **c**, as in the *caster* of **Lancaster**; in the Midlands, a soft **c**, as in **Leicester**; in the South, a **ch**, as in **Winchester**. We shall find similar differences of hardness and softness in ordinary words. Thus we find **kirk** and **church**; **canker** and **cancer**; **canal** and **channel**; **deck** and **thatch**; **drill** and **thrill**; **fan** and **van** (in a winnowing-machine); **fitch** and **vetch**; **hale** and **whole**; **mash** and **mess**; **naught**, **nought**, and **not**; **pike**, **peak**, and **beak**; **poke** and **pouch**; **quid** (a piece of tobacco for chewing) and **cud** (which means the thing *chewed*); **reave** and **rob**; **ridge** and **rig**; **scabby** and **shabby**; **scar** and **share**; **screech** and **shriek**; **shirt** and **skirt**; **shuffle** and **scuffle**; **spray** and **sprig**; **wain** and **waggon**—and other pairs. All of these are but different modes of pronouncing the same word in different parts of England; but the genius of the language has taken advantage of these different **ways of pronouncing** to make different words out of them, and to give them different functions, meanings, and uses.

¹ See p. 50.

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY OF THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH.

1. The Oldest English Synthetic.—The oldest English, or Anglo-Saxon, that was brought over here in the fifth century, was a language that showed the relations of words to each other by adding different endings to words, or by **synthesis**. These endings are called **inflexions**. Latin and Greek are highly inflected languages; French and German have many more inflexions than modern English; and ancient English (or Anglo-Saxon) also possessed a large number of inflexions.

2. Modern English Analytic.—When, instead of inflexions, a language employs small particles—such as prepositions, auxiliary verbs, and suchlike words—to express the relations of words to each other, such a language is called **analytic** or **non-inflexional**. When we say, as we used to say in the oldest English, “God is ealra cyninga cyning,” we speak a synthetic language. But when we say, “God is king of all kings,” then we employ an analytic or uninflected language.

3. Short View of the History of English Grammar.—From the time when the English language came over to this island, it has grown steadily in the number of its words. On the other hand, it has lost just as steadily in the number of its inflexions. Put in a broad and somewhat rough fashion, it may be said that—

(i) Up to the year 1100—one generation after the Battle of Senlac—the English language was a **SYNTHETIC** Language.

(ii) From the year 1100 or thereabouts, English has been losing its inflexions, and gradually becoming more and more an ANALYTIC Language.

4. Causes of this Change.—Even before the coming of the Danes and the Normans, the English people had shown a tendency to get rid of some of their inflexions. A similar tendency can be observed at the present time among the Germans of the Rhine Province, who often drop an *n* at the end of a word, and show in other respects a carelessness about grammar. But, when a foreign people comes among natives, such a tendency is naturally encouraged, and often greatly increased. The natives discover that these inflexions are not so very important, if only they can get their meaning rightly conveyed to the foreigners. Both parties, accordingly, come to see that the **root** of the word is the most important element; they stick to that, and they come to neglect the mere inflexions. Moreover, the accent in English words always struck the root; and hence this part of the word always fell on the ear with the greater force, and carried the greater weight. When the Danes—who spoke a cognate language—began to settle in England, the tendency to drop inflexions increased; but when the Normans—who spoke an entirely different language—came, the tendency increased enormously, and the inflexions of Anglo-Saxon began to “fall as the leaves fall” in the dry wind of a frosty October. Let us try to trace some of these changes and losses.

5. Grammar of the First Period, 450-1100.—The English of this period is called the **Oldest English** or **Anglo-Saxon**. The gender of nouns was arbitrary, or—it may be—poetical; it did not, as in modern English it does, follow the sex. Thus **nama**, a name, was masculine; **tunge**, a tongue, feminine; and **eage**, an eye, neuter. Like *nama*, the proper names of men ended in *a*; and we find such names as Isa, Offa, Penda, as the names of kings. Nouns at this period had five cases, with inflexions for each; now we possess but one inflexion—that for the possessive. —Even the definite article was inflected.—The infinitive of verbs ended in *an*; and the sign *to*—which we received from the

Danes—was not in use, except for the dative of the infinitive. This dative infinitive is still preserved in such phrases as “a house to let;” “bread to eat;” “water to drink.”—The present participle ended in **ende** (in the North **ande**). This present participle may be said still to exist—in spoken, but not in written speech; for some people regularly say *walkin*, *goin*, for *walking* and *going*.—The plural of the present indicative ended in **ath** for all three persons. In the perfect tense, the plural ending was **on**.—There was no future tense; the work of the future was done by the present tense. Fragments of this usage still survive in the language, as when we say, “He goes up to town next week.”—Prepositions governed various cases; and not always the objective (or accusative), as they do now.

6. Grammar of the Second Period, 1100-1250.—The English of this period is called **Early English**. Even before the coming of the Normans, the inflexions of our language had—as we have seen—begun to drop off, and it was slowly on the way to becoming an analytic language. The same changes—the same simplification of grammar, has taken place in nearly every Low German language. But the coming of the Normans hastened these changes, for it made the inflexional endings of words of much less practical importance to the English themselves.—Great changes took place in the pronunciation also. The hard **c** or **k** was softened into **ch**; and the hard guttural **g** was refined into a **y** or even into a silent **w**.—A remarkable addition was made to the language. The Oldest English or Anglo-Saxon had no indefinite article. They said *ofer stán* for *on a rock*. But, as the French have made the article **un** out of the Latin **unus**, so the English pared down the northern **ane** (= **one**) into the article **an** or **a**. The Anglo-Saxon definite article was **se**, **seo**, **pæst**; and in the grammar of this Second Period it became **þe**, **þeo**, **þe**.—The French plural in **es** took the place of the English plural in **en**. But *housen* and *shoon* existed for many centuries after the Norman coming; and Mr Barnes, the Dorsetshire poet, still deploras the ugly sound of *nests* and *fists*, and would like to be able to say and to write *nesten* and *fisten*.—The dative plural, which ended in **um**, becomes an **e** or an **en**. The **um**,

however, still exists in the form of **om** in **seldom** (=at few times) and **whilom** (=in old times).—The gender of nouns falls into confusion, and begins to show a tendency to follow the sex.—Adjectives show a tendency to drop several of their inflexions, and to become as serviceable and accommodating as they are now—when they are the same with all numbers, genders, and cases.—The **an** of the infinitive becomes **en**, and sometimes even the **n** is dropped.—**Shall** and **will** begin to be used as tense-auxiliaries for the future tense.

7. Grammar of the Third Period, 1250-1350.—The English of this period is often called **Middle English**.—The definite article still preserves a few inflexions.—Nouns that were once masculine or feminine become neuter, for the sake of convenience.—The possessive in **es** becomes general.—Adjectives make their plural in **e**.—The infinitive now takes **to** before it—except after a few verbs, like *bid*, *see*, *hear*, etc.—The present participle in **inge** makes its appearance about the year 1300.

8. Grammar of the Fourth Period, 1350-1485.—This may be called **Later Middle English**. An old writer of the fourteenth century points out that, in his time—and before it—the English language was “a-deled a thre,” divided into three; that is, that there were three main dialects, the **Northern**, the **Midland**, and the **Southern**. There were many differences in the grammar of these dialects; but the chief of these differences is found in the plural of the present indicative of the verb. This part of the verb formed its plurals in the following manner:—

NORTHERN.	MIDLAND.	SOUTHERN.
We hopès	We hopen	We hopeth.
You hopès	You hopen	You hopeth.
They hopès	They hopen	They hopeth. ¹

In time the Midland dialect conquered; and the East Midland form of it became predominant all over England. As early as the beginning of the thirteenth century, this dialect had thrown off most of the old inflexions, and had become almost as flexion-

¹ This plural we still find in the famous Winchester motto, “Manners maketh man.”

less as the English of the present day. Let us note a few of the more prominent changes.—The first personal pronoun **Ic** or **Ich** loses the guttural, and becomes **I**—The pronouns **him**, **them**, and **whom**, which are true datives, are used either as datives or as objectives.—The imperative plural ends in **eth**. “Riseth up,” Chaucer makes one of his characters say, “and stondeth by me!”—The useful and almost ubiquitous letter **e** comes in as a substitute for **a**, **u**, and even **an**. Thus **nama** becomes **name**, **sunu** (son) becomes **sune**, and **withutan** changes into **withute**.—The dative of adjectives is used as an adverb. Thus we find **softë**, **brightë** employed like our **softly**, **brightly**.—The **n** in the infinitive has fallen away; but the **ë** is sounded as a separate syllable. Thus we find **brekë**, **smitë** for *breken* and *smiten*.

9. General View.—In the time of King Alfred, the West-Saxon speech—the Wessex dialect—took precedence of the rest, and became the literary dialect of England. But it had not, and could not have, any influence on the spoken language of other parts of England, for the simple reason that very few persons were able to travel, and it took days—and even weeks—for a man to go from Devonshire to Yorkshire. In course of time the Midland dialect—that spoken between the Humber and the Thames—became the predominant dialect of England; and the East Midland variety of this dialect became the parent of modern standard English. This predominance was probably due to the fact that it, soonest of all, got rid of its inflexions, and became most easy, pleasant, and convenient to use. And this disuse of inflexions was itself probably due to the early Danish settlements in the east, to the larger number of Normans in that part of England, to the larger number of thriving towns, and to the greater and more active communication between the eastern seaports and the Continent. The inflexions were first confused, then weakened, then forgotten, finally lost. The result was an extreme simplification, which still benefits all learners of the English language. Instead of spending a great deal of time on the learning of a large number of inflexions, which are to them arbitrary and meaningless,

foreigners have only to fix their attention on the words and phrases themselves, that is, on the very pith and marrow of the language—indeed, on the language itself. Hence the great German grammarian Grimm, and others, predict that English will spread itself all over the world, and become the universal language of the future. In addition to this almost complete sweeping away of all inflexions,—which made Dr Johnson say, “Sir, the English language has no grammar at all,”—there were other remarkable and useful results which accrued from the coming in of the Norman-French and other foreign elements.

10. Monosyllables.—The stripping off of the inflexions of our language cut a large number of words down to the root. Hundreds, if not thousands, of our verbs were dissyllables, but, by the gradual loss of the ending *en* (which was in Anglo-Saxon *an*), they became monosyllables. Thus *bindan*, *drincan*, *findan*, became *bind*, *drink*, *find*; and this happened with hosts of other verbs. Again, the expulsion of the guttural, which the Normans never could or would take to, had the effect of compressing many words of two syllables into one. Thus *haegel*, *twaegen*, and *faegen*, became *hail*, *twain*, and *fain*.—In these and other ways it has come to pass that the present English is to a very large extent of a monosyllabic character. So much is this the case, that whole books have been written for children in monosyllables. It must be confessed that the monosyllabic style is often dull, but it is always serious and homely. We can find in our translation of the Bible whole verses that are made up of words of only one syllable. Many of the most powerful passages in Shakespeare, too, are written in monosyllables. The same may be said of hundreds of our proverbs—such as, “Cats hide their claws”; “Fair words please fools”; “He that has most time has none to lose.” Great poets, like Tennyson and Matthew Arnold, understand well the fine effect to be produced from the mingling of short and long words—of the homely English with the more ornate Romance language. In the following verse from Matthew Arnold the words are all monosyllables, with the exception of *tired* and *contention* (which is Latin):—

“Let the long contention cease ;
 Geese are swans, and swans are geese ;
 Let them have it how they will,
 Thou art tired. Best be still !”

In Tennyson's “Lord of Burleigh,” when the sorrowful husband comes to look upon his dead wife, the verse runs almost entirely in monosyllables :—

“And he came to look upon her,
 And he looked at her, and said :
 ‘Bring the dress, and put it on her,
 That she wore when she was wed.’”

An American writer has well indicated the force of the English monosyllable in the following sonnet :—

“Think not that strength lies in the big, *round* word,
 Or that the *brief* and *plain* must needs be weak.
 To whom can this be true who once has heard
 The cry for help, the tongue that all men speak,
 When want, or fear, or woe, is in the throat,
 So that each word gasped out is like a shriek
Pressed from the sore heart, or a *strange*, wild *note*
 Sung by some *fay* or fiend ! There is a strength,
 Which dies if stretched too far, or spun too fine,
 Which has more height than breadth, more depth than length ;
 Let but this *force* of thought and speech be mine,
 And he that will may take the sleek fat *phrase*,
 Which glows but burns not, though it beam and shine ;
 Light, but no heat,—a flash, but not a blaze.”

It will be observed that this sonnet consists entirely of monosyllables, and yet that the style of it shows considerable power and vigour. The words printed in italics are all derived from Latin, with the exception of the word *phrase*, which is Greek.

11. Change in the Order of Words.—The syntax—or order of words—of the oldest English was very different from that of Norman-French. The syntax of an Old English sentence was clumsy and involved ; it kept the attention long on the strain ; it was rumbling, rambling, and unpleasant to the ear. It kept the attention on the strain, because the verb in a subordinate clause was held back, and not revealed till we had come to the

end of the clause. Thus the Anglo-Saxon wrote (though in different form and spelling)—

“When Darius saw, that he overcome be would.”

The newer English, under French influence, wrote—

“When Darius saw that he was going to be overcome.”

This change has made an English sentence lighter and more easy to understand, for the reader or hearer is not kept waiting for the verb; but each word comes just when it is expected, and therefore in its “natural” place. The Old English sentence—which is very like the German sentence of the present day—has been compared to a heavy cart without springs, while the newer English sentence is like a modern well-hung English carriage. Norman-French, then, gave us a brighter, lighter, freer rhythm, and therefore a sentence more easy to understand and to employ, more supple, and better adapted to everyday use.

12. The Expulsion of Gutturals.—(i) Not only did the Normans help us to an easier and pleasanter kind of sentence, they aided us in getting rid of the numerous throat-sounds that infested our language. It is a remarkable fact that there is not now in the French language a single guttural. There is not an *h* in the whole language. The French *write* an *h* in several of their words, but they never sound it. Its use is merely to serve as a fence between two vowels—to keep two vowels separate, as in *la haine*, hatred. No doubt the Normans could utter throat-sounds well enough when they dwelt in Scandinavia; but, after they had lived in France for several generations, they acquired a great dislike to all such sounds. No doubt, too, many, from long disuse, were unable to give utterance to a guttural. This dislike they communicated to the English; and hence, in the present day, there are many people—especially in the south of England—who cannot sound a guttural at all. The muscles in the throat that help to produce these sounds have become atrophied—have lost their power for want of practice. The purely English part of the population, for many centuries after the Norman invasion, could sound gutturals quite easily—just as the Scotch

and the Germans do now; but it gradually became the fashion in England to leave them out.

13. The Expulsion of Gutturals.—(ii) In some cases the guttural disappeared entirely; in others, it was changed into or represented by other sounds. The **ge** at the beginning of the passive (or past) participles of many verbs disappeared entirely. Thus **gebróht, gebóht, geworht**, became **brought, bought, and wrought**. The **g** at the beginning of many words also dropped off. Thus **Gyppenswich** became **Ipswich**; **gif** became **if**; **genoh**, **enough**.—The guttural at the end of words—hard **g** or **c**—also disappeared. Thus **halig** became **holy**; **eordhlic**, **earthly**; **gastlic**, **ghastly** or **ghostly**. The same is the case in **dough, through, plough**, etc.—the guttural appearing to the eye but not to the ear.—Again, the guttural was changed into quite different sounds—into labials, into sibilants, into other sounds also. The following are a few examples:—

(a) The guttural has been softened, through Norman-French influence, into a sibilant. Thus **rigg, egg, and brigg** have become **ridge, edge, and bridge**.

(b) The guttural has become a labial—**f**—as in **cough, enough, trough, laugh, draught**, etc.

(c) The guttural has become an additional syllable, and is represented by a **vowel-sound**. Thus **sorg** and **mearh** have become **sorrow** and **marrow**.

(d) In some words it has disappeared both to eye and ear. Thus **makēd** has become **made**.

14. The Story of the GH.—How is it, then, that we have in so many words the two strongest gutturals in the language—**g** and **h**—not only separately, in so many of our words, but combined? The story is an odd one. Our Old English or Saxon scribes wrote—not **light, might, and night**, but **liht, miht, and niht**. When, however, they found that the Norman-French gentlemen would not sound the **h**, and say—as is still said in Scotland—**licht**, &c., they redoubled the guttural, strengthened the **h** with a hard **g**, and again presented the dose to the Norman. But, if the Norman could not sound the **h** alone, still less could he sound the double guttural; and he very coolly let both alone

—ignored both. The Saxon scribe doubled the signs for his guttural, just as a farmer might put up a strong wooden fence in front of a hedge; but the Norman cleared both with perfect ease and indifference. And so it came to pass that we have the symbol **gh** in more than seventy of our words, and that in most of these we do not sound it at all. The **gh** remains in our language, like a moss-grown boulder, brought down into the fertile valley in a glacial period, when gutturals were both spoken and written, and men believed in the truthfulness of letters—but now passed by in silence and noticed by no one.

15. The Letters that represent Gutturals.—The English guttural has been quite Protean in the written or printed forms it takes. It appears as an **i**, as a **y**, as a **w**, as a **ch**, as a **dge**, as a **j**, and—in its more native forms—as a **g**, a **k**, or a **gh**. The following words give all these forms: hail, day, fowl, teach, edge, ajar, drag, truck, and trough. Now *hail* was *hagol*, *day* was *daeg*, *fowl* was *fugol*, *teach* was *taecan*, *edge* was *egg*, *ajar* was *achar*. In **seek**, **beseech**, **sought**—which are all different forms of the same word—we see the guttural appearing in three different forms—as a hard **k**, as a soft **ch**, as an un-noticed **gh**. In **think** and **thought**, **drink** and **draught**, **sly** and **sleight**, **dry** and **drought**, **slay** and **slaughter**, it takes two different forms. In **dig**, **ditch**, and **dike**—which are all the same word in different shapes—it again takes three forms. In **fly**, **flew**, and **flight**, it appears as a **y**, a **w**, and a **gh**. But, indeed, the manners of a guttural, its ways of appearing and disappearing, are almost beyond counting.

16. Grammatical Result of the Loss of Inflexions.—When we look at a Latin or French or German word, we know whether it is a verb or a noun or a preposition by its mere appearance—by its face or by its dress, so to speak. But the loss of inflexions which has taken place in the English language has resulted in depriving us of this advantage—if advantage it is. Instead of **looking** at the **face** of a word in English, we are obliged to **think** of its **function**,—that is, of what it does. We have, for example, a large number of words that are both nouns and verbs—we may use them as the one or as the other; and,

till we have used them, we cannot tell whether they are the one or the other. Thus, when we speak of "a cut on the finger," cut is a **noun**, because it is a name; but when we say, "Harry cut his finger," then cut is a **verb**, because it tells something about Harry. Words like bud, cane, cut, comb, cap, dust, fall, fish, heap, mind, name, pen, plaster, punt, run, rush, stone, and many others, can be used either as **nouns** or as **verbs**. Again, fast, quick, and hard may be used either as **adverbs** or as **adjectives**; and back may be employed as an **adverb**, as a **noun**, and even as an **adjective**. Shakespeare is very daring in the use of this licence. He makes one of his characters say, "But me no buts!" In this sentence, the first *but* is a **verb** in the imperative mood; the second is a **noun** in the objective case. Shakespeare uses also such verbs as *to glad*, *to mad*, such phrases as *a seldom pleasure*, and *the fairest she*. Dr Abbott says, "In Elizabethan English, almost any part of speech can be used as any other part of speech. An adverb can be used as a verb, 'they askance their eyes'; as a noun, 'the backward and abyssm of time'; or as an adjective, 'a seldom pleasure.' Any noun, adjective, or neuter verb can be used as an active verb. You can 'happy' your friend, 'malice' or 'fool' your enemy, or 'fall' an axe upon his neck." Even in modern English, almost any noun can be used as a verb. Thus we can say, "to *paper* a room"; "to *water* the horses"; "to *black-ball* a candidate"; "to *iron* a shirt" or "a prisoner"; "to *toe* the line." On the other hand, verbs may be used as nouns; for we can speak of a *work*, of a beautiful *print*, of a long *walk*, and so on.

CHAPTER IV.

SPECIMENS OF ENGLISH OF DIFFERENT PERIODS.

1. **Vocabulary and Grammar.**—The oldest English or Anglo-Saxon differs from modern English both in vocabulary and in grammar—in the words it uses and in the inflexions it employs. The difference is often startling. And yet, if we look closely at the words and their dress, we shall most often find that the words which look so strange are the very words with which we are most familiar—words that we are in the habit of using every day; and that it is their dress alone that is strange and antiquated. The effect is the same as if we were to dress a modern man in the clothes worn a thousand years ago: the chances are that we should not be able to recognise even our dearest friend.

2. **A Specimen from Anglo-Saxon.**—Let us take as an example a verse from the Anglo-Saxon version of one of the Gospels. The well-known verse, Luke ii. 40, runs thus in our oldest English version:—

Sóþlice ðæt cild weox, and waes gestrangod, wisdómes full; and Godes gyfu waes on him.

Now this looks like an extract from a foreign language; but it is not: it is our own veritable mother-tongue. Every word is pure ordinary English; it is the dress—the spelling and the inflexions—that is quaint and old-fashioned. This will be plain from a literal translation:—

Soothly that child waxed, and was strengthened, wisdoms full (=full of wisdom); and God's gift was on him.

3. A Comparison.—This will become plainer if we compare the English of the Gospels as it was written in different periods of our language. The alteration in the meanings of words, the changes in the application of them, the variation in the use of phrases, the falling away of the inflexions—all these things become plain to the eye and to the mind as soon as we thoughtfully compare the different versions. The following are extracts from the Anglo-Saxon version (995), the version of Wycliffe (1389) and of Tyndale (1526), of the passage in Luke ii. 44, 45 :—

ANGLO-SAXON.	WYCLIFFE.	TYNDALE.
Wéndon daet he on heora gefére wære, dá comon hig ánes daeges faer, and hine sóhton betweox his magas and his cúðan.	Forsothe thei gesinge him to be in the felowschipe, camen the wey of á day, and souzten him among his cosyns and knowen.	For they supposed he had bene in the company, they cam a days iorney, and sought hym amonge their kynsfolke and acquayntaunce.
Ða hig hyne ne fúndon, hig gewendon to Hierusalem, hine sécende.	And thei not fyndinge, wenten ajen to Jerusalem, sekyng him.	And founde hym not, they went backe agayne to Hierusalem, and sought hym.

The literal translation of the Anglo-Saxon version is as follows :—

(They) weened that he on their companionship were (= was), when came they one day's faring, and him sought betwixt his relations and his couth (folk=acquaintances).

When they him not found, they turned to Jerusalem, him seeking.

4. The Lord's Prayer.—The same plan of comparison may be applied to the different versions of the Lord's Prayer that have come down to us ; and it will be seen from this comparison that the greatest changes have taken place in the grammar, and especially in that part of the grammar which contains the inflexions.

THE LORD'S PRAYER.

1130. REIGN OF STEPHEN.	1250. REIGN OF HENRY III.	1380. WYCLIFFE'S VERSION.	1526. TYNDALE'S VERSION.
Fader ure, þe art on heofone.	Fadir ur, that es in hevene,	Our Fadir, that art in hevenys,	Our Father, which art in heaven;
Sy gebletsod name þin, Cume þin rike.	Halud thi nam to nevene; Thou do as thi rich rike;	Halewid be thi name; Thi kingdom come to;	Halowed be thy name; Let thy king- dom come;
Si þin wil swa swa on heofone and on eorþan.	Thi will on erd be wrought, eek as it is wrought in heven ay.	Be thi wil done in erthe, as in hevene.	Thy will be ful- filled as well in earth as it is in heven.
Breod ure deg- wamlich geof us to daeg.	Ur ilk day brede give us to day.	Give to us this day oure breed ovir othir <i>sub- staunce</i> ,	Geve us this day ur dayly bred,
And forgeof us ageltes ura swa swa we forgeofen agiltendum ur- um.	Forgive thou all us dettes urs, als we forgive till ur detturs.	And forgive to us our <i>dettis</i> , as we forgiven to oure <i>dettouris</i> .	And forgeve us oure dettes as we forgeve ur det- ters.
And ne led us on costunge.	And ledde us in na fandung.	And lede us not into <i>tempta- cioun</i> ;	And leade us not into tempta- tion,
Ac alys us fram yfele. Swa beo hit.	But sculd us fra ivel thing. Amen.	But <i>delyvere</i> us from yvel. Amen.	But delyver us from evyll. For thyne is the kyng- dom, and the power, and the glorye, for ever. Amen.

It will be observed that Wycliffe's version contains five Romance terms — *substaunce*, *dettis*, *dettouris*, *temptacioun*, and *delyvere*.

5. Oldest English and Early English.—The following is a short passage from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, under date 1137: first, in the Anglo-Saxon form; second, in Early English, or—as it has sometimes been called—Broken Saxon;

third, in modern English. The breaking-down of the grammar becomes still more strikingly evident from this close juxtaposition.

- (i) Hi swencton þá wreccan menn
- (ii) Hi swencten the wreccen men
- (iii) They swinked (harassed) the wretched men

- (i) Þæs landes mid castel-weorcum.
- (ii) Of-the-land mid castel-weorces.
- (iii) Of the land with castle-works.

- (i) Ða þá castelas waeron gemacod,
- (ii) Tha the castles waren maked,
- (iii) When the castles were made,

- (i) þá fyldon hí hí mid yfelum mannum.
- (ii) thá fylden hi hi mid yvele men.
- (iii) then filled they them with evil men.

6. Comparisons of Words and Inflexions.—Let us take a few of the most prominent words in our language, and observe the changes that have fallen upon them since they made their appearance in our island in the fifth century. These changes will be best seen by displaying them in columns :—

ANGLO-SAXON.	EARLY ENGLISH.	MIDDLE ENGLISH.	MODERN ENGLISH.
heom.	to heom.	to hem.	to them.
seó.	heó.	ho, scho.	she.
sweostrum.	to the swestres.	to the swistren.	to the sisters.
geboren.	gebore.	iboré.	born.
lufigende.	lufigend.	lovand.	loving.
weoxon.	woxen.	wexide.	waxed.

7. Conclusions from the above Comparisons.—We can now draw several conclusions from the comparisons we have made of the passages given from different periods of the language. These conclusions relate chiefly to verbs and nouns ; and they

may become useful as a KEY to enable us to judge to what period in the history of our language a passage presented to us must belong. If we find such and such marks, the language is Anglo-Saxon; if other marks, it is Early English; and so on.

I.—MARKS OF ANGLO-SAXON.

VERBS.

Infinitive in **an**.
Pres. part. in **ende**.
Past part. with **ge**.
3d plural pres. in **ath**.
3d plural past in **on**.
Plural of imperatives in **ath**.

NOUNS.

Plurals in **an**, **as**, or **a**.
Dative plural in **um**.

II.—MARKS OF EARLY ENGLISH (1100-1250).

Inf. in **en** or **e**.
Pres. part. in **ind**.
ge of past part. turned into **i** or **y**.
3d plural in **en**.

NOUNS.

Plural in **es**.
Dative plural in **es**.

III.—MARKS OF MIDDLE ENGLISH (1250-1485).

VERBS.

Inf. with **to** (the **en** was dropped about 1400).
Pres. part. in **inge**.
3d plural in **en**.
Imperative in **eth**.
Plurals in **es** (separate syllable).

NOUNS.

Possessives in **es** (separate syllable).

8. The English of the Thirteenth Century.—In this century there was a great breaking-down and stripping-off of inflexions. This is seen in the **Ormulum** of Orm, a canon of the Order of St Augustine, whose English is nearly as flexionless as that of Chaucer, although about a century and a half before him. Orm has also the peculiarity of always doubling a consonant after a short vowel. Thus, in his introduction, he says:—

“*Piss boc iss nemmnedd Ormulum
Forr þi þatt Orm itt wrohhte.*”

That is, “This book is named Ormulum, for the (reason) that Orm wrought it.” The absence of inflexions is probably due to the fact that the book is written in the East-Midland dialect. But, in a song called “The Story of Genesis and Exodus,” written about 1250, we find a greater number of inflexions. Thus we read:—

“*Hunger wex in lond Chanaan;
And his x sunes Jacob for-ðan*”

Sente in to Egypt to bringen coren ;
He bilefe at hom ðe was gungest boren."

That is, "Hunger waxed (increased) in the land of Canaan ; and Jacob for that (reason) sent his ten sons into Egypt to bring corn : he remained at home that was youngest born."

9. **The English of the Fourteenth Century.**—The four greatest writers of the fourteenth century are—in verse, **Chaucer** and **Langlande**; and in prose, **Mandeville** and **Wycliffe**. The inflexions continue to drop off; and, in Chaucer at least, a larger number of French words appear. Chaucer also writes in an elaborate verse-measure that forms a striking contrast to the homely rhythms of Langlande. Thus, in the "Man of Lawes Tale," we have the verse :—

"O queenës, lyvyng in prosperitée,
Duchessës, and ladyës everichone,
Haveth som routhe on hir adversitée ;
An emperourës doughter stant allone ;
She hath no wight to whom to make hir mone.
O blood roial ! that stondest in this dredö
Fer ben thy frendës at thy gretö nedö !"

Here, with the exception of the imperative in *Haveth som routhe* (= have some pity), *stant*, and *ben* (= are), the grammar of Chaucer is very near the grammar of to-day. How different this is from the simple English of Langlande ! He is speaking of the great storm of wind that blew on January 15, 1362 :—

"Piries and Plomtres weore passchet to þe grounde,
In ensauple to Men þat we scholde do þe bettre,
Beches and brode okes weore blowen to þe eorþe."

Here it is the spelling of Langlande's English that differs most from modern English, and not the grammar.—Much the same may be said of the style of Wycliffe (1324-1384) and of Mandeville (1300-1372). In Wycliffe's version of the Gospel of Mark, v. 26, he speaks of a woman "that hadde suffride many thingis of ful many lechis (doctors), and spendid alle hir thingis ; and no-thing profitide." Sir John Mandeville's English keeps many old inflexions and spellings ; but is, in other respects, modern enough. Speaking of Mahomet, he says : "And þee

schulle understonds that Machamete was born in Arabye, that was first a pore knave that kept cameles, that wenten with marchantes for marchandise." *Knave* for boy, and *wenten* for went are the two chief differences—the one in the use of words, the other in grammar—that distinguish this piece of Mandeville's English from our modern speech.

10. The English of the Sixteenth Century.—This, which is also called Tudor-English, differs as regards grammar hardly at all from the English of the nineteenth century. This becomes plain from a passage from one of Latimer's sermons (1490-1555), "a book which gives a faithful picture of the manners, thoughts, and events of the period." "My father," he writes, "was a yeoman, and had no lands of his own, only he had a farm of three or four pound a year at the uttermost, and hereupon he tilled so much as kept half a dozen men. He had walk for a hundred sheep; and my mother milked thirty kine." In this passage, it is only the old-fashionedness, homeliness, and quaintness of the English—not its grammar—that makes us feel that it was not written in our own times. When Ridley, the fellow-martyr of Latimer, stood at the stake, he said, "I commit our cause to Almighty God, which shall indifferently judge all." Here he used *indifferently* in the sense of *impartially*—that is, in the sense of *making no difference between parties*; and this is one among a very large number of instances of Latin words, when they had not been long in our language, still retaining the older Latin meaning.

11. The English of the Bible (i).—The version of the Bible which we at present use was made in 1611; and we might therefore suppose that it is written in seventeenth-century English. But this is not the case. The translators were commanded by James I. to "follow the Bishops' Bible"; and the Bishops' Bible was itself founded on the "Great Bible," which was published in 1539. But the Great Bible is itself only a revision of Tyndale's, part of which appeared as early as 1526. When we are reading the Bible, therefore, we are reading English of the sixteenth century, and, to a large extent, of the early part of that century. It is true that successive generations of

printers have, of their own accord, altered the spelling, and even, to a slight extent, modified the grammar. Thus we have *fetch* for the older *fet*, *more* for *moe*, *sown* for *sowen*, *brittle* for *brickle* (which gives the connection with *break*), *jaws* for *charws*, *sixth* for *sixt*, and so on. But we still find such participles as *shined* and *understanded*; and such phrases as “they can skill to hew timber” (1 Kings v. 6), “objects” for *abject persons*, “three days ago” for *ago*, the “captivated Hebrews” for “the captive Hebrews,” and others.

12. The English of the Bible (ii).—We have, again, old words retained, or used in the older meaning. Thus we find, in Psalm v. 6, the phrase “them that speak leasing,” which reminds us of King Alfred’s expression about “*leasum spellum*” (lying stories). *Trow* and *ween* are often found; the “campaign over against Gilgal” (Deut. xi. 30) means the *plain*; and a publican in the New Testament is a tax-gatherer, who sent to the Roman Treasury or Publicum the taxes he had collected from the Jews. An “ill-favoured person” is an ill-looking person; and “bravery” (Isa. iii. 18) is used in the sense of finery in dress.—Some of the oldest grammar, too, remains, as in Esther viii. 8, “Write ye, as it liketh you,” where the *you* is a dative. Again, in Ezek. xxx. 2, we find “Howl ye, Woe worth the day!” where the imperative *worth* governs *day* in the dative case. This idiom is still found in modern verse, as in the well-known lines in the first canto of the “Lady of the Lake” :—

“Woe worth the chase, woe worth the day
That cost thy life, my gallant grey !”

CHAPTER V.

MODERN ENGLISH.

1. Grammar Fixed.—From the date of 1485—that is, from the beginning of the reign of Henry VII.—the changes in the grammar or constitution of our language are so extremely small, that they are hardly noticeable. Any Englishman of ordinary education can read a book belonging to the latter part of the fifteenth or to the sixteenth century without difficulty. Since that time the grammar of our language has hardly changed at all, though we have altered and enlarged our vocabulary, and have adopted thousands of new words. The introduction of Printing, the Revival of Learning, the Translation of the Bible, the growth and spread of the power to read and write—these and other influences tended to fix the language and to keep it as it is to-day. It is true that we have dropped a few old-fashioned endings, like the *n* or *en* in *silvern* and *golden*; but, so far as form or grammar is concerned, the English of the sixteenth and the English of the nineteenth centuries are substantially the same.

2. New Words.—But, while the grammar of English has remained the same, the vocabulary of English has been growing, and growing rapidly, not merely with each century, but with each generation. The discovery of the New World in 1492 gave an impetus to maritime enterprise in England, which it never lost, brought us into connection with the Spaniards, and hence contributed to our language several Spanish words. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Italian literature

was largely read; Wyatt and Surrey show its influence in their poems; and Italian words began to come in in considerable numbers. Commerce, too, has done much for us in this way; and along with the article imported, we have in general introduced also the name it bore in its own native country. In later times, Science has been making rapid strides—has been bringing to light new discoveries and new inventions almost every week; and along with these new discoveries, the language has been enriched with new names and new terms. Let us look a little more closely at the character of these foreign contributions to the vocabulary of our tongue.

3. Spanish Words.—The words we have received from the Spanish language are not numerous, but they are important. In addition to the ill-fated word armada, we have the Spanish for *Mr*, which is Don (from Lat. *dominus*, a lord), with its feminine Duenna. They gave us also alligator, which is our English way of writing *el lagarto*, the lizard. They also presented us with a large number of words that end in *o*—such as buffalo, cargo, desperado, guano, indigo, mosquito, mulatto, negro, potato, tornado, and others. The following is a tolerably full list:—

Alligator.	Cork.	Galleon (a ship).	Mulatto.
Armada.	Creole.	Grandee.	Negro.
Barricade.	Desperado.	Grenade.	Octoroon.
Battledore.	Don.	Guerilla.	Quadroon.
Bravado.	Duenna.	Indigo.	Renegade.
Buffalo.	Eldorado.	Jennet.	Savannah.
Cargo.	Embargo.	Matador.	Sherry (= Xeres).
Cigar.	Filibuster.	Merino.	Tornado.
Cochineal.	Flotilla.	Mosquito.	Vanilla.

4. Italian Words.—Italian literature has been read and cultivated in England since the time of Chaucer—since the fourteenth century; and the arts and artists of Italy have for many centuries exerted a great deal of influence on those of England. Hence it is that we owe to the Italian language a large number of words. These relate to poetry, such as canto, sonnet, stanza; to music, as pianoforte, opera, oratorio, soprano, alto, contralto; to architecture and sculpture, as

portico, piazza, cupola, torso; and to painting, as **studio, fresco** (an open-air painting), and others. The following is a complete list :—

Alarm.	Charlatan.	Incognito.	Proviso.
Alert.	Citadel.	Influenza.	Quarto.
Alto.	Colonnade.	Lagoon.	Regatta.
Arcade.	Concert.	Lava.	Ruffian.
Balcony.	Contralto.	Lazaretto.	Serenade.
Balustrade.	Conversazione.	Macaroni.	Sonnet.
Bandit.	Cornice.	Madonna.	Soprano.
Bankrupt.	Corridor.	Madrigal.	Stanza.
Bravo.	Cupola.	Malaria.	Stiletto.
Brigade.	Curvet.	Manifesto.	Stucco.
Brigand.	Dilettante.	Motto.	Studio.
Broccoli.	Ditto.	Moustache.	Tenor.
Burlesque.	Doge.	Niche.	Terra-cotta.
Bust.	Domino.	Opera.	Tirade.
Cameo.	Extravaganza.	Oratorio.	Torso.
Canteen.	Fiasco.	Palette.	Trombone.
Canto.	Folio.	Pantaloon.	Umbrella.
Caprice.	Fresco.	Parapet.	Vermilion.
Caricature.	Gazette.	Pedant.	Vertu.
Carnival.	Gondola.	Pianoforte.	Virtuoso.
Cartoon.	Granite.	Piazza.	Vista.
Cascade.	Grotto.	Pistol.	Volcano.
Cavalcade.	Guitar.	Portico.	Zany.

5. Dutch Words.—We have had for many centuries commercial dealings with the Dutch; and as they, like ourselves, are a great seafaring people, they have given us a number of words relating to the management of ships. In the fourteenth century, the southern part of the German Ocean was the most frequented sea in the world; and the chances of plunder were so great that ships of war had to keep cruising up and down to protect the trading vessels that sailed between England and the Low Countries. The following are the words which we owe to the Netherlands :—

Ballast.	Luff.	Sloop.	Trigger.
Boom.	Reef.	Smack.	Wear (said of a ship).
Boor.	Schiedam (gin).	Smuggle.	Yacht.
Burgomaster.	Skates.	Stiver.	Yawl.
Hoy.	Skipper.	Taffrail.	

6. French Words.—Besides the large additions to our language made by the Norman-French, we have from time to time imported direct from France a number of French words, without change in the spelling, and with little change in the pronunciation. The French have been for centuries the most polished nation in Europe; from France the changing fashions in dress spread over all the countries of the Continent; French literature has been much read in England since the time of Charles II.; and for a long time all diplomatic correspondence between foreign countries and England was carried on in French. Words relating to manners and customs are common, such as *soirée*, *etiquette*, *séance*, *élite*; and we have also the names of things which were invented in France, such as *mitrailleuse*, *carte-de-visite*, *coup d'état*, and others. Some of these words are, in spelling, exactly like English; and advantage of this has been taken in a well-known epigram:—

The French have taste in all they do,
Which we are quite without;
For Nature, which to them gave goût,¹
To us gave only gout.

The following is a list of French words which have been imported in comparatively recent times:—

Aide-de-camp. ¹	Carte-de-visite.	Etiquette.	Personnel.
Belle.	Coup-d'état.	Façade.	Précis.
Bivouac.	Débris.	Goût.	Programme.
Blonde.	Début.	Naïve.	Protégé.
Bouquet.	Déjeuner.	Naïveté.	Recherché.
Brochure.	Depot.	Nonchalance.	Séance.
Brunette.	Éclat.	Outré.	Soirée.
Brusque.	Ennui.	Penchant.	Trousseau.

The Scotch have always had a closer connection with the French nation than England; and hence we find in the Scottish dialect of English a number of French words that are not used in South Britain at all. A leg of mutton is called in Scotland a *gigot*; the dish on which it is laid is an *ashet* (from *assiette*); a cup for tea or for wine is a *tassie* (from *tasse*); the gate of a town is

¹ *Goût* (goo) from Latin *gustus*, taste.

called the **port**; and a stubborn person is **dour** (Fr. *dur*, from Lat. *durus*); while a gentle and amiable person is **douce** (Fr. *douce*, Lat. *dulcis*).

7. German Words.—It must not be forgotten that English is a Low-German dialect, while the German of books is New High-German. We have never borrowed directly from High-German, because we have never needed to borrow. Those modern German words that have come into our language in recent times are chiefly the names of minerals, with a few striking exceptions, such as **loafer**, which came to us from the German immigrants to the United States, and **plunder**, which seems to have been brought from Germany by English soldiers who had served under Gustavus Adolphus. The following are the German words which we have received in recent times :—

Cobalt.	Landgrave.	Meerschaum.	Poodle.
Felspar.	Loafer.	Nickel.	Quartz.
Hornblende.	Margrave. ✓	Plunder. ✓	Zinc.

8. Hebrew Words.—These, with very few exceptions, have come to us from the translation of the Bible, which is now in use in our homes and churches. **Abbot** and **abbey** come from the Hebrew word **abba**, father; and such words as **cabal** and **Talmud**, though not found in the Old Testament, have been contributed by Jewish literature. The following is a tolerably complete list :—

Abbey.	Cinnamon.	Leviathan.	Sabbath.
Abbot.	Hallelujah.	Manna.	Sadducees.
Amen.	Hosannah.	Paschal.	Satan.
Behemoth.	Jehovah.	Pharisee.	Seraph.
Cabal.	Jubilee.	Pharisaical.	Shibboleth.
Cherub.	Gehenna.	Rabbi.	Talmud.

9. Other Foreign Words.—The English have always been the greatest travellers in the world; and our sailors always the most daring, intelligent, and enterprising. There is hardly a port or a country in the world into which an English ship has not penetrated; and our commerce has now been maintained for centuries with every people on the face of the globe. We exchange goods with almost every nation and tribe under the

sun. When we import articles or produce from abroad, we in general import the native name along with the thing. Hence it is that we have **guano**, **maize**, and **tomato** from the two Americas; **coffee**, **cotton**, and **tamarind** from Arabia; **tea**, **congou**, and **nankeen** from China; **calico**, **chintz**, and **rupee** from Hindostan; **bamboo**, **gamboge**, and **sago** from the Malay Peninsula; **lemon**, **musk**, and **orange** from Persia; **boomerang** and **kangaroo** from Australia; **chibouk**, **ottoman**, and **tulip** from Turkey. The following are lists of these foreign words; and they are worth examining with the greatest minuteness:—

AFRICAN DIALECTS.

Baobab.	Gnu.	Karoo.	Quagga.
Canary.	Gorilla.	Kraal.	Zebra.
Chimpanzee.	Guinea.	Oasis.	

AMERICAN TONGUES.

Alpaca.	Condor.	Maize.	Racoon.
Buccaneer.	Guano.	Manioc.	Skunk.
Cacique.	Hammock.	Moccasin.	Squaw.
Cannibal.	Jaguar.	Mustang.	Tapioca.
Canoe.	Jalap.	Opossum.	Tobacco.
Caoutchouc.	Jerked (beef).	Pampas.	Tomahawk.
Cayman.	Llama.	Pemmican.	Tomato.
Chocolate.	Mahogany.	Potato.	Wigwam.

ARABIC.

(The word *al* means *the*. Thus *alcohol* = *the spirit*.)

Admiral (Milton writes <i>am-miral</i> .)	Azure.	Harem.	Salaam.
Alcohol.	Caliph.	Hookah.	Senna.
Alcove.	Carat.	Koran (or Al-coran).	Sherbet.
Alembic.	Chemistry.		Shrub (the drink).
Algebra.	Cipher.	Lute.	Simoom.
Alkali.	Civet.	Magazine.	Sirocco.
Amber.	Coffee.	Mattress.	Sofa.
Arrack.	Cotton.	Minaret.	Sultan.
Arsenal.	Crimson.	Mohair.	Syrup.
Artichoke.	Dragoman.	Monsoon.	Talisman.
Assassin.	Elixir.	Mosque.	Tamarind.
Assegai.	Emir.	Mufti.	Tariff.
Attar.	Fakir.	Nabob.	Vizier.
Azimuth.	Felucca.	Nadir.	Zenith.
	Gazelle.	Naphtha.	Zero.
	Giraffe.	Saffron.	

CHINESE.

Bohea.	Hyson.	Nankeen.	Souchong.
China.	Joss.	Pekoe.	Tea.
Congou.	Junk.	Silk. ✓	Typhoon.

HINDU.

Avatar.	Cowrie.	Pagoda.	Ryot.
Banyan.	Durbar.	Palanquin.	Sepoy.
Brahmin.	Jungle.	Pariah.	Shampoo.
Bungalow.	Lac (of rupees).	Punch.	Sugar.
Calico.	Loot.	Pundit.	Suttee.
Chintz.	Mulligatawny.	Rajah.	Thug.
Coolie.	Musk.	Rupee.	Toddy.

HUNGARIAN.

Hussar.	Sabre.	Shako.	Tokay.
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MALAY.

Amuck.	Cassowary.	Gong.	Orang-outang.
Bamboo.	Cockatoo.	Gutta-percha.	Rattan.
Bantam.	Dugong.	Mandarin.	Sago. ✓
Caddy.	Gamboge.	Mango.	Upas.

PERSIAN.

Awning.	Dervish.	Jasmine.	Pasha.
Bazaar.	Divan.	Lac (a gum).	Rook.
Bashaw.	Firman.	Lemon.	Saraband.
Caravan.	Hazard.	Lilac.	Sash.
Check.	Horde.	Lime (the fruit).	Scimitar.
Checkmate.	Houri.	Musk.	Shawl.
Chess.	Jar.	Orange.	Taffeta.
Curry.	Jackal.	Paradise.	Turban.

POLYNESIAN DIALECTS.

Boomerang.	Kangaroo.	Taboo.	Tattoo.
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PORTUGUESE.

Albatross.	Cocoa-nut.	Lasso.	Molasses.
Caste.	Commodore.	Marmalade.	Palaver.
Cobra.	Fetish.	Moidore.	Port (= Oporto).

RUSSIAN.

Czar.	Knout.	Rouble.	Ukase.
Drosky.	Morse.	Steppe.	Verst.

TARTAR.

Khan.

TURKISH.

Bey.	Chouse.	Kiosk.	Tulip.
Caftan.	Dey.	Odalisque.	Yashmak.
Chibouk.	Janissary.	Ottoman.	Yataghan.

10. Scientific Terms.—A very large number of discoveries in science have been made in this century; and a large number of inventions have introduced these discoveries to the people, and made them useful in daily life. Thus we have *telegraph* and *telegram*; *photograph*; *telephone* and even *photophone*. The word *dynamite* is also modern; and the unhappy employment of it has made it too widely known. Then passing fashions have given us such words as *athlete*¹ and *æsthete*. In general, it may be said that, when we wish to give a name to a new thing—a new discovery, invention, or fashion—we have recourse not to our own stores of English, but to the vocabularies of the Latin and Greek languages.

LANDMARKS IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

	A.D.
1. The Beowulf , an old English epic, "written on the mainland"	450
2. Christianity introduced by St Augustine (and with it many Latin and a few Greek words)	597
3. Cædmon —'Paraphrase of the Scriptures,'—first English poem	670
4. Bæda —"The Venerable Bede"—translated into English part of St John's Gospel	735
5. King Alfred translated several Latin works into English, among others, Bede's 'Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation'	(851) 901
6. Aelfric , Archbishop of York, turned into English most of the historical books of the Old Testament	1000
7. The Norman Conquest , which introduced Norman French words	1066
8. Anglo-Saxon Chronicle , said to have been begun by King Alfred, and brought to a close in	1160
9. Orm or Orrmin's Ormulum , a poem written in the East Midland dialect, about	1200
10. Normandy lost under King John. Norman-English now have their only home in England, and use our English speech more and more	1204
11. Layamon translates the 'Brut' from the French of Robert Wace. This is the first English book (written in <i>Southern English</i>) after the stoppage of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle	1205
12. The Ancren Riwe ("Rules for Anchorites") written in the Dorsetshire dialect. "It is the forerunner of a wondrous change in our speech." "It swarms with French words"	1220
13. First Royal Proclamation in English, issued by Henry III.	1258
14. Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle (swarms with foreign terms)	1300

15. **Robert Manning**, "Robert of Brunn," compiles the 'Handlyng Synne.' "It contains a most copious proportion of French words" 1303
16. **Ayenbite of Inwit** (= "Remorse of Conscience") 1340
17. **The Great Plague**. After this it becomes less and less the fashion to speak French 1349
18. **Sir John Mandeville**, first writer of the newer English Prose—in his 'Travels,' which contained a large admixture of French words. "His English is the speech spoken at Court in the latter days of King Edward III." 1356
19. **English** becomes the language of the Law Courts 1362
20. **Wickliffe's Bible** 1380
21. **Geoffrey Chaucer**, the first great English poet, author of the 'Canterbury Tales'; born in 1340, died 1400
22. **William Caxton**, the first English printer, brings out (in the Low Countries) the first English book ever printed, the 'Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye,'—"not written with pen and ink, as other books are, to the end that every man may have them at once" 1471
23. **First English Book** printed in England (by Caxton) the 'Game and Playe of the Chesse' 1474
24. **Lord Berners'** translation of Froissart's Chronicles 1523
25. **William Tyndale**, by his translation of the Bible "fixed our tongue once for all." "His New Testament has become the standard of our tongue: the first ten verses of the Fourth Gospel are a good sample of his manly Teutonic pith" 1526-30
26. **Edmund Spenser** publishes his 'Faerie Queene.' "Now began the golden age of England's literature; and this age was to last for about fourscore years" 1590
27. **Our English Bible**, based chiefly on Tyndale's translation. "Those who revised the English Bible in 1611 were bidden to keep as near as they could to the old versions, such as Tyndale's" 1611
28. **William Shakespeare** carried the use of the English language to the greatest height of which it was capable. He employed 15,000 words. "The last act of 'Othello' is a rare specimen of Shakespeare's diction: of every five nouns, verbs, and adverbs, four are Teutonic" (Born 1564) 1616
29. **John Milton**, "the most learned of English poets," publishes his 'Paradise Lost,'—"a poem in which Latin words are introduced with great skill" 1667

30. **The Prayer-Book** revised and issued in its final form. "*Are* was substituted for *be* in forty-three places. This was a great victory of the North over the South" 1661
31. **John Bunyan** writes his '*Pilgrim's Progress*'—a book full of pithy English idiom. "The common folk had the wit at once to see the worth of Bunyan's masterpiece, and the learned long afterwards followed in the wake of the common folk" (Born 1628) 1688
32. **Sir Thomas Browne**, the author of '*Urn-Burial*' and other works written in a highly Latinised diction, such as the '*Religio Medici*,' written 1642
33. **Dr Samuel Johnson** was the chief supporter of the use of "long-tailed words in osity and ation," such as his novel called '*Rasselas*,' published 1759
34. **Tennyson**, Poet-Laureate, a writer of the best English—"a countryman of Robert Manning's, and a careful student of old Malory, has done much for the revival of pure English among us". (Born 1809)

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